An investigation of technology-mediated task-based learning and learner motivation at a vocational higher education institution in Indonesia

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Central Lancashire

August 2019

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School **Language and Global Studies**

ABSTRACT

This thesis is an exploratory study of the implementation of technology-mediated Task-Based Learning (TBL) in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context in an Indonesian vocational higher education institution. It investigated naturally occurring TBL writing classes to examine how digital technologies influenced students' motivation and performance in writing modules. Three research questions were identified relating to 1) the way motivation to learn English writing skill is reflected in technology-mediated TBL learning, 2) the factors affecting motivation, and 3) the way the students completed their writing tasks. Mixed method data collection and analysis were conducted. 145 students from three-year groups participated by responding to the online questionnaire. 47 students from these groups participated in eight focus group discussions (FGD), and 13 students from graduate groups also volunteered to take part in another 2 FGDs. Two classes from Year 1 (47 students) were taken as a sample to observe the learning process between an existing group that was introduced to the learning of English writing through Edmodo. The other group used pens, pencils and books to write down their writing tasks. Furthermore, ten separate interviews with their lecturers were conducted.

Very high motivation in learning English that the students reported was not reflected in their way of completing the writing tasks. However, the use of technology in their learning affected their motivation positively and negatively. Human factors and technical novelty positively and negatively influenced the students' motivation to learn English writing skills. Vocabulary-searching and reference-searching tools were used to complete the writing tasks together with an electronic learning platform called Edmodo. Lastly, five Oxford's strategies (1990) were applied during the three TBLT cycles. This study recommends implementing an adopted TBL framework for writing skills and encourages experimental and longitudinal methods for future research.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere gratitude is addressed to my Director of Studies, Professor Michael Thomas, for placing his trust in me to allow me to continue my PhD journey and providing support and guidance up to the last minute. I would also like to express my humble appreciation to Dr Petra Bagley for her reassurance about my work, especially during my periods of struggle, and Dr Daniel Waller for his valuable direction. I have learned a great deal as a result of their encouragement. Important life lessons have certainly helped to build my character as a person, student, researcher and educator.

I am grateful for the assistance provided by Jane Bruney from UCLan's Refworks, Jane Brunning from the interlibrary loan department and also thankful to the IT team, and the assistance from my colleagues and students at my home institution during the data collection period, of whom they are too many to list.

A priceless gratitude is also addressed to the Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education of the Republic of Indonesia for the sponsorship and my home institution for administrative assistance. Moreover, this work is aimed at improving the teaching of English at my home institution. Thereby, it is dedicated to the English Department of *Politeknik Negeri Padang*. I also dedicate this thesis to my single, fighter mother, Yusni Abbas, whose motherly dedication never stops.

Finally, to all my family, my beloved one, friends, and the colleagues in Greenbank room 201 who offered unanticipated kindness, advice and moral support that kept me going, enabling me to complete my thesis. I would not be able to have reached this stage without you all! Thank you, God, for all the blessings.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A1/A2	A basic ability to communicate and exchange information in a simple way
ADB	The Asian Development Bank
AMBT	The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery
AsiaCALL	Asian Computer-Assisted Language Learning
AsiaTEFL	Asia Teaching English as a Foreign Language
ASR	Automatic Speech Recognition
CALL	Computer-Assisted Language Learning
CBI	Content-Based Instruction
CEFR	The Common European Framework of Reference
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CMC	Computer-Mediated Communication
CMS	Course Management System
Diff	Difference
DMC	Directed Motivational Current
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EB	English for Broadcasting
EBSCO	Elton B. Stephens Co, an information service
ED	English Department
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELM	English Learning Motivation
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FoF	Focus on Forms
GE	General English
H1/2	Hypothesis 1/2
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
iTELL	Indonesian Technology-Enhanced Language Learning
JALT	The Japan Association of Language Teaching
JASELE	Japan Society of English Language Education

L1	First Language/Mother Tongue
L2	Second/Foreign Language
LLM	Language Learning Motivation
LMS	Learning Management System
NSHE	The National Standard of Higher Education
MALL	Mobile-Assisted Language Learning
MARSI	Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategy Inventory
MLEs	Managed Learning Environments
MOLT	Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching
NVivo	A qualitative data analysis (QDA) computer software package produced by QSR International
OECD	The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PC	Personal Computer
PNP	Politeknik Negeri Padang (Padang State Polytechnic)
PPP	Presentation-Practice-Production
PPT	Power Point Presentation
RQ	Research Question
Satnav	Satellite Navigation
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
SILL	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRL	Self-Regulated Learning
TBI	Task-Based Instruction
TBL	Task-Based Learning
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TELL	Technology-Enhanced Language Learning
TESL	Teaching English as a Second Language
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TML	Technology-mediated Learning
TMTBLT	Technology-Mediated Task-Based Language Teaching
TOEIC	Test of English for an International Communication
UCLan	University of Central Lancashire
UMPN	(Ujian Masuk Politeknik Negeri/ A national examination)

U.K	The United Kingdom
U.S	The United State of America
Web 2.0	The second generation of the World Wide Web
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This study investigates to what extent, and in what ways, the use of tasks and internet technology will be useful for motivating and improving the English writing skills of students in a vocational higher education setting in Indonesia. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to identify students' motivational level when dealing with the learning of English writing skills in technology-mediated TBL (Task-Based Learning) classes in one particular Indonesian vocational higher education institution.

The influence of numerous dialects within a large number of ethnic groups in Indonesia, added to the existence of over seven hundred vernaculars used in daily communication, contribute to unsuccessful English acquisition in Indonesia (Griffiths, 2015). However, Marcellino (2015) suggested that being a multilingual society in which people are accustomed to hearing different languages on a daily basis might contribute significantly to the acquisition of a third or fourth foreign language. It is also important to bear in mind that Indonesians, especially the Minang Kabau people of West Sumatera Province where this study took place, inherited an oral tradition (Samian, 2015) and their writing ability was typically considered to be low as a consequence (Alwasilah, 2017; Hermansyah, 2016; Sundari & Febriyanti, 2017).

Sukandi and Syafar (2018), for example, reported two important matters in this respect. Firstly, students in West Sumatera typically choose reading classes over writing classes. Secondly, Sukandi and Syafar claimed that significant encouragement for the motivation of West Sumatera's students to learn English writing skills was needed. The work reported in this thesis investigates how motivated the multilingual Indonesian students were to learn English as a Foreign Language (EFL) while they had many local languages to understand and use in their daily life and profession. Furthermore, if they were motivated, in what ways do modern information and communication technologies (ICTs) such as the internet contribute to foreign language acquisition?

Implementing the use of technology in the teaching of English is developing in line with the influence of technology in everyday life. Mahmoodi, Kalantari, and Ghaslani (2014), for example, mentioned that new motivational knowledge and beliefs influence engagement in the performance of tasks and identified gaps for further

research. Further research needs to explore whether new types of motivation exist in these new technology-mediated learning environments, which types of task, and which technology results in new forms of motivation.

In the educational context, observed motivation changes with time, and is most commonly recorded in three or five-year terms (Müller & Palekčić, 2006). These authors found that in higher education the initial, intrinsic purpose and drive to undertake a particular course ranged from weak to strong. As the study period continued, extrinsic reasoning increased or decreased the strength of the initial motivation. Such motivation can best be described as *dynamic* in orientation.

Young's (1961) longstanding and influential definition of motivation lacks dynamic and process-orientated elements. It did, however, introduce four determinates of motivation that are of help to teachers in understanding their students' behaviour: activating, directing, predisposing and organising. According to Young, courses should be designed and taught using task-based activities which stimulate interest, then steer the students in a direction which helps them to find the knowledge they seek. 'Organising' assists students find more relevant patterns of action.

Many studies in the past 60 years have examined motivation related to language learning (Ellis, 2015; Malcolm, 2013). Most accept that the reason why a student chooses to learn a new language is a major influence and is, thus, often their motivational factor (Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b; Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Gardener (1985) distinguished three components within studies of motivation: motivational effort, the desire to learn the language, and learners' attitude towards learning the language. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) stressed the importance of persistence, i.e. the continuing of an action in spite of difficulty and opposition in language learning. In this context, persistence equates to motivation; it is the level of motivation that determines why learners decide to learn a language, and for how long they are going to pursue their aim. Arising from consideration of these studies, I consider that motivation to learn a foreign language is a dynamic process which can be influenced by teaching methods. An examination of the use of technology and task-based instruction to improve learning outcomes is, therefore, a valid area of enquiry.

The factors which boost a student's motivation to learn English and, hence, potentially improve a student's proficiency when enrolled in a polytechnic are examined in this thesis. There has been little work on this topic to date. Dörnyei and Ushioda

(2013) emphasised that the examination of motivation in class-based teaching contexts is complex and suggest that it is explored through a task-based framework. Arising from this, this thesis explores a technology-mediated task-based approach to teaching EFL and its implications for learner motivation in the context of a vocational higher education setting in Indonesia. Therefore, this study aims to contribute to the literature on Indonesian EFL research. Details about the thesis' original contribution to knowledge are explored in Section 1.3. Before exploring each theme in this study, it is necessary to examine EFL in Indonesia. The background information for this study is provided in Section 1.2.

1.2 Background of the study

Three issues are explored relating to the background of this research context: 1) problems identified from Indonesia EFL learning, 2) the research setting, and 3) the teaching of writing in the institution.

1.2.1 Problems in EFL in Indonesia

In relation to the attempt to help the target institution generate better learning and teaching policies, the concerns of the thesis developed from my experience in teaching English writing skills in vocational higher education levels and other institutions in West Sumatera, Indonesia. Five problem areas were identified in the Indonesian EFL context: 1) Indonesian Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), 2) motivation for EFL in a HEI context, 3) English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in a vocational institution, 4) learning styles and technology utilisation, and 5) institutional challenges.

Indonesia has a population of almost 300 million and the number of students entering higher education is increasing annually. Based on a report from the Indonesian Central Bureau of Statistics (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2017), there was an increase of 50,329 students in the state HEIs to 391,644 students and 25,187 students in the private HEIs to 297,537 students in the academic year 2015/2016. Based on the university rankings published by the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education (Kementerian Riset, Teknologi dan Perguruan Tinggi, 2016), there are 3,320 HEIs in Indonesia, of which 76 are state-owned universities, 39 are polytechnics, and the rest are privately-owned institutions.

Students have to pass a standardised national entrance examination to enrol in a national university. This examination is intended to recruit high-achieving and highly

motivated students who wish to study in state-owned universities and colleges. The entrance examination also helps discriminate between the very able candidates and students who failed the entry process. Students who fail the examination can continue their education by enrolling in state polytechnics. Consequently, polytechnics struggle to implement their programme to educate students to a high standard as the students often lack both basic academic achievement and motivation for learning. In 2016, it was recorded that the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) scores of English Department students ranged from 115 to 565, with the average score being 302 (Politeknik Negeri Padang, 2016).

The low-test scores contribute to and highlight the second problem of the low motivation of students for EFL learning. Mattarima and Hamdan (2011, 2016) reported that learner-centred teaching in the Indonesian school curriculum was problematic owing to motivational constraints and poor language learning strategies. Their low English proficiency was the result of a lack of motivation among Indonesian learners, caused by their misconceptions about English and issues with the teaching approaches (Panggabean, 2007). Therefore, Panggabean suggested that teachers apply multimedia technologies, such as television, radio and the internet, to motivate their learners. However, this suggestion has not been explored at the vocational higher education setting in Indonesia as yet, though some studies have been conducted at the school level (see Chapter 2).

The third problem concerns ESP teaching in HEIs. Petrus (2012) identified a common situations in Indonesian HEIs in his analysis of an English module at a Faculty of Education in Sumatera:

1) General English was the main teaching language of instruction.
2) A needs analysis had not been carried out.
3) There was a lack of qualified teaching staff.
4) Lectures and question-answer sessions were held in a large lecture theatre.
5) Courses were not evaluated based on student feedback.
6) The course had not been designed in collaboration with the study programmes, instructors and language institute.

These findings closely mirror the situation that I have encountered during my teaching career in a state-owned university language centre, at private universities, in faculty level-based teaching, polytechnics, and nursing colleges in West Sumatera.

Learning styles and technology utilisation is the fourth problem. As reported by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the Asian Development Bank's (ADB) joint review of national policies on education in Indonesia (OECD & ADB, 2015), Indonesian tertiary education mainly utilised the traditional lecture methods, which, in turn, influence students' learning styles. One of the suggestions emphasised in their review is the application of tasks in the learning process. Since students nowadays are more interested in using digital technologies, it is time to fully utilise the media with which they are familiar to make them more motivated in their foreign language learning. Therefore, the connection between motivation and technology use will be investigated in this study.

There is evidence that the unproductive use of technology hinders the success of EFL in Indonesian education (Dewi, 2015). Instead of learning and using social media, for example, for getting in touch with the broader English-speaking community to improve their skills, students tended to use the technology in their local languages and for other needs which are not relevant to EFL learning. Furthermore, Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) claimed that motivation affected the learning of a second and foreign language (L2) in a multilingual context but these motivational differences have been largely ignored by most researchers.

Therefore, more research on how digital technologies can play a role in motivating learners in EFL contexts needs to be explored. Nevertheless, although technology may be effectively used to enable EFL learning, Hamied (2012) suggested that, as Indonesia is a multicultural and multilingual society, the teaching of English in Indonesia should be primarily taught through the context of local culture and technology should be used as a supplement. This study examines the role and potential of digital technologies and TBLT. It also re-evaluates the traditional teacher-centred method.

Finally, the institutional challenges are the immediate reason for the initiation of this study. In 2009, an English Department was established in the Politeknik Negeri Padang (PNP) and the curriculum aimed to develop English skills for jobs in translation and broadcasting (Politeknik Negeri Padang, n.d). Considering that students' basic language proficiency and motivation are low as indicated by an average TOEIC score that corresponds to the A1-Basic Level of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), this aim becomes more challenging.

Master (2005) suggested that research on ESP in EFL contexts using field-specific materials was a potential solution because of the job-related targets. Recent developments in Indonesian ESP have heightened the need for further ESP studies in Indonesian vocational HEIs (Widodo & Novawan, 2012; Widodo, 2006, 2013).

English for Broadcasting (EB) was first introduced as a subject at *PNP* in the 2012 curriculum and has never been evaluated. Since the polytechnic graduates are expected to be ready to work in industries, teaching and learning at polytechnic level requires 40% theory and 60% practice (Politeknik Negeri Padang, n.d), and therefore ESP should be emphasised. This is because polytechnic graduates are expected to be ready to work in the national industries, such as the manufacturing, broadcasting, and tourism industries. Therefore, students need to be prepared with not just the language skills, but also the technical and vocational skills required by their future employers.

Investigating the learners' use of technology alongside their language learning in this study was also driven by the institutional challenge of producing English department graduates who are also technically skilful. This research is required because the department at the targeted study area is newly established. It investigates whether technologies will be effective for teachers in improving and enabling students' EFL motivation by optimising the use of technological facilities provided by the institution.

In order to conduct the research within this context, an overview of EFL in Indonesia is provided in what follows to set the scene. English, as one of the compulsory subjects, was introduced in Year 3 of primary education (age 9 and 10) and continued to tertiary level (Masduqi, 2014) but this policy changed later. Kirkpatrick (2016) noted that Indonesia was the only nation within the East and Southeast Asian nations which did not treat English as a compulsory part of the primary school curriculum. It follows that there is poor English mastery among students at the higher education level in Indonesia.

According to Masduqi (2014) Bahasa Indonesia, the official Indonesian Language, is the daily language for interaction in Indonesia. However, the widely used local language in Sumatera Barat (West Sumatera) is Bahasa Minang (Minang Language). It was thus expected that this would be the first language and the daily language used by the majority (76%) of students. Only 12 % of the students in this study reported that Bahasa Indonesian (the national language) was their daily language for interaction. A small number of participants were bi- or multi-lingual (M = 2.08, SD

= .958). The data cannot be used to infer that these students have an inherent ability to learn a new language. The age at which the students started to learn English ranged from 2 to 17 years (M = 8.68, SD = 2.542) with 83% being between the ages of 6 and 11.

A study by Mattarima and Hamdan (2011) at secondary high school level found that language learning motivation was indicated as one of the factors that might suggest this situation. However, studies on the higher education level in this context have not been explored. Limited research on English learning in tertiary education in Indonesia was one of the gaps found in this study (Adisca & Mardijono, 2014; Araminta & Halimi, 2015; Muhrofi-Gunadi, 2016; Pammu, Amir, & Maasum, 2014; Petrus, 2012; Rosdiana, 2014; Septiana, Sulistyo, & Kadarisman, 2016; Wullur, 2011; Yuliana, Imperiani, & Kurniawan, 2016). Even though it was recorded that there were studies at the higher education level, they were limited to the issue of productive and reproductive skills. Research that investigates motivation and English related topics have not been explored in the university context.

Learning a foreign language without having motivation might not contribute positively to students' language progression. However, a study in an EFL context in Indonesian tertiary education, and learning among students with low proficiency, conducted by Pammu, Amir, and Maasum (2014), reported a contrasting point. They highlighted that motivation did not contribute significantly to English proficiency. The use of relevant learning strategies, however, proved to contribute significantly to English proficiency. They used the MARSI questionnaire (Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategy Inventory) to measure the correlation between reading strategies, English proficiency and motivation.

A similar finding was made by Chen and Tsai (2015) who also found that language learning strategies increased students' TOEIC scores. Low motivation has been identified by educators as the most problematic area in the teaching and learning of written English. This assumption was supported by Marwan (2017). ESP teaching in vocational higher education in his research context was problematic and showed low motivation, low proficiency, and a lack of quality resources. However, no further research has been done to verify this and no specific research was carried out on motivation. Although they were studying a language that could be very useful for their future career as English department graduates, students did not seem to commit to their

studies. Dewi (2015) found that students used technology unproductively, for example, by accessing social networks for non-English learning contexts.

The lack of motivation is a particular problem in the teaching of English in Indonesia. Based on observations from the classes that I have taught, I believe that utilising students' interest in the use of technology may well be a solution for the motivational challenges. Integrating technology into the lessons and tapping into the generation's love of gadgets was hypothesised to be an effective way to improve the teaching and learning policy in higher vocational learning context. This study was generated by this very practical classroom problem and was also driven by the institutional challenges of producing English Department graduates who are also technically skilful.

1.2.2 The research setting

Complex diversity issues in higher education in the Southeast Asian countries might be solved by treating them in accordance with the regional or institutional experience that matched the local context (Altbach, 2017). Limited studies have been conducted on ESP in vocational HEIs in Indonesia (Widodo, 2006, 2013, 2015; Widodo and Novawan, 2012). In relation to this thesis, the English proficiency level within this context was very low (CEFR A1-Basic User level). Thus, the English teaching approach and materials needed to be adjusted to their English proficiency. In Bangladesh, which is similar to Indonesia in this respect, the implementation of a top-down policy to improve English education was ineffective (Hamid, 2011). Therefore, implementing an institution-specific approach is suggested in this research.

PNP is a vocational HEI which offers a three-year study programme focusing on applied sciences. It is located in West Sumatera, Indonesia. It aims to equip graduates with skills as workers and technicians in their respective industries. It has seven departments: Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Civil Engineering, Accountancy, Business Administration, Technology Information, and English. Each class has of 20-25 students (Politeknik Negeri Padang, n.d). This study was designed to research the development of English writing modules by analysing students' English writing skills through technology-mediated peer-feedback and task-based activities. This research investigated whether technology was effective in helping less motivated students to improve their English proficiency through a case study approach.

This research is required because the department in the targeted study area has recently been established and action to design the teaching materials is urgent because teachers and students need proper guidance for their teaching and learning. As has been explored earlier, this study investigated the possibilities for combining the use of tasks and technology, recently known as technology-mediated task-based language learning (I refer to this as technology-mediated TBLT).

Mufida, Mukhyaiyar, and Radjab (2013) found that implementing TBLT in Indonesia was not without its challenges, and these were related to the authenticity of the tasks, as well as institutional and social problems. This study focusses on the localised task-based approach to the teaching of writing skills and social factors were limited to a classroom-related social context. The implementation of a TBLT approach in a vocational institution was highly relevant. It emphasises 60% practice and 40% theory, which means that students were expected to learn through doing the tasks.

A number of internal studies reported that the lack of motivation in writing classes was due to grammar and vocabulary issues. Therefore, studies on the use of the internet were conducted by using Edmodo and the Moodle Learning Management System (LMS) in their action research in writing, translation, and grammar classes in the institution (Aulia, Yulastri, & Sari, 2014; Aulia, Yulastri, & Handayani, 2016; Yulastri, 2015a, Yulastri, 2015b; Yulastri, Aulia, & Saptopramono, 2016). They found that Edmodo significantly improved their students' vocabulary development and writing ability. Yulastri (2015b) found that the students developed a better understanding of sentences as recorded in the students' comments posted on their Edmodo accounts. This sentence level improvement was found in the use of capitalisation and punctuation. Furthermore, Yulastri noted students' positive attitude toward the writing subject through the application of Edmodo in their learning. Yulastri concluded that students' motivation to write and post their comment via Edmodo was one of the key reasons for the improvement in the students' writing skills. A second technology, the Moodle LMS, was used by Aulia et al (2014; Aulia *et al*., 2016) who reported that this e-portfolio also assisted them in improving the four English language skills.

1.2.3 English writing skills at the *PNP*

Writing is not only considered to be a complex task but also typically identified as a time-consuming activity, which require determination and concentration (Kormos, 2012). The writing tasks in the Padang State Polytechnic were determined by the

curriculum, starting from Basic English language taught in the first year, gradually progressing to more complex and specialised tasks for specific purposes such as translation and broadcasting towards the completion of their three-year course of study (Aulia *et al.*, 2016). Based on documentary analysis of the lesson plans from the institution's curriculum, writing tasks in my study were focused differently throughout the levels: from sentence level to paragraph in Year 1 to business letters in Year 2. Observations were conducted during the period when the students were practising their writing tasks by writing sentences into paragraphs and narrative writing.

The aims of this study were two-fold. Firstly, this study targeted the evaluation of the vocational English teaching in tertiary education to identify gaps in the teaching practices. Secondly, it was aimed at describing the nature of the teaching of writing skills in this context. This study was exploratory, and not experimental. It, therefore, followed the curriculum and localised the TBLT approach as suggested by Littlewood (2007a). In addition, it did not interfere either with the nature of the teaching or the learning system. There was no pre-test or post-test to measure the success of the learning and the progress of the writing skills' improvement over the period in which task-based learning was used. This *process*-focused study was in line with the nature of the teaching of writing, in which writing skills should not be assessed by their products. As the literature suggested, writing skills should be assessed as series of processes of learning instead of the result of the final writing products (DiStefano & Killion, 1984; Graham, Hebert, & Harris, 2015; Romova & Andrew, 2011; Weigle, 2002).

This study agrees that language achievement should not be measured by the score that students achieve at the end of the programme. However, a process-oriented approach to learning was designed to investigate this task-based learning design. This is because the aim of this study was to explore the localised version of TBLT during the task-based writing sessions.

1.3 Original contribution to knowledge

The original contribution to knowledge of this study is its research into the effect of both the use of writing tasks and technology for improving language learning motivation and proficiency. There was no literature on the association between motivation and the use of a technology-mediated TBLT framework, especially in the context of vocational learning. However, Blake (2016) suggested that when Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is carefully situated within a TBLT framework, it

can contribute to the development of the second language, including the development of writing skills. Moreover, oral production was known to be a dominant focus in TBLT (Byrnes & Manchón, 2014; Carless, 2012).

Responding to the limited literature on the teaching writing skills in Indonesia, my study is the first to explore the integration of digital technology and the TBLT approach in EFL research in Indonesia. Similar to previous studies on the TBL approach, this study explored productive English skills. Moreover, this study was limited to EFL in the tertiary education level.

The originality of this study has three aspects: mixed themes, the source of data, and the context of the research. Firstly, this current study investigates four major themes: language learning motivation, TBLT, technology-mediated learning, and teaching writing skills. Regarding the source of data, the study is complex:

- Data were focused on a genuine EFL context where the students' language proficiency was below intermediate; A1 on the CEFR;
- Data were derived from real classroom practice. Based on a search of the *Journal of Second Language Writing*, research of the L2 writing, feedback and motivational issues were mostly conducted in case studies of two to three students doing writing tasks outside of their real classroom (Cho, 2017; Han & Hiver, 2018; Lei, 2008);
- Data were derived from a mixed context involving online questionnaires, focus group discussion with students, interviews with lecturers, classroom observations, and students' scores.

Thirdly, in-depth research of this kind has not yet been conducted in Indonesian vocational higher education contexts. The study fills a gap in current research by:

- investigating English learning motivation in vocational higher education;
- offering insights into the problematic area of low motivated students, which could be applicable to other contexts in the region;
- the development of technology-mediated TBLT in ESP in Indonesia.

1.4 Aims and research questions

Investigating the use of technology-mediated learning to increase students' motivation is, thus, the cornerstone of this study. Specifically, the study aims to:

- evaluate students' motivation in learning English writing skills in vocational higher education in *PNP*;
- explore the application of technology-mediated TBLT in teaching English writing skills for vocational English teaching in an Indonesian HEI.

To meet those aims, three research questions were posed as follows:

RQ1. How do Indonesian EFL students' perceptions about motivation to learn English writing skills reflect their experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom?

RQ2. What are the factors which affect students' motivation to complete their English writing tasks in a technology-mediated task-based approach?

RQ3. How do students complete technology-mediated TBL writing tasks?

1.5 Outline of the thesis

The thesis contains of six chapters. Following the introduction, Chapter 2 introduces the theoretical framework of TBLT, teaching writing skills, motivational issues in English in a foreign language-teaching context, learning strategies, and technology-mediated TBLT. The literature review was used to help the researcher design the research instruments and data analysis. Chapter 3 describes the research design. It explains the research approach, the framework of the research, the methods of data collection, the data analysis and the pilot study.

The findings and discussion of the quantitative and qualitative data are grouped based on the research questions. They are presented in the next two chapters. Chapter 4 discusses detailed results of the findings and discussion for the motivational issues (RQ1). The motivation for learning English in a vocational higher education setting is explored. Responses from the online questionnaire (Items 1 and 2) and focus group discussions (FGD) from three year-groups (n=147) are correlated with the results from the learning outcomes from the writing classes. The discussion of the findings is analysed using Gardner's model, indicating the effects of the cultural and educational context on motivation in second language learning (Gardner, 2007).

The results and discussions for the second and third research questions are explored in one chapter (Chapter 5) to maintain the interconnection between the motivational aspects and the way students completed their English writing tasks. The

responses from the online questionnaire (Items 5, 6, 7, 9, 13, and 14) and the FGDs are triangulated with the results from the classroom observation to evaluate the differences between language learner motivation and classroom learning motivation

Each of the subsection present findings from four data collection instruments: the questionnaire, the FGDs, the interviews, and the observations. Following the sequence of data collection, the questionnaire results relating to Items 10 to 14 from the technology-mediated task-based section of the questionnaire are presented at the beginning of each subsection. They are then triangulated with the results from the focus group discussions representing the students' perspectives. Furthermore, the tools and the strategies implemented by the students of Year 1 (n=47) as the sample are explored. To strengthen the findings, notes from classroom observations and photographs of classroom activities from the actual learning context in the writing classes are used. The discussion of each of the findings is then presented after the findings section.

Finally, Chapter 6 recaps the key points, discusses the limitations of the research approach, and identifies areas for future work.

CHAPTER 2
TECHNOLOGY-MEDIATED TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING IN AN EFL LEARNING CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction

This thesis investigates the relationship between the implementation of technology-mediated task-based language teaching (TBLT) and students' motivation in writing classes in a vocational higher education context In Indonesia. In this chapter, a literature review explores each subtopic in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) research in Indonesia. The themes follow the order of development.

2.2 Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Three main terms to task-based language education can be distinguished: 1) task-based language teaching (TBLT), 2) task-based (language) learning (TBL) and 3) task-based instruction (TBI) to describe the use of authentic tasks as the medium of learning and teaching. In their book *Approaches and Methods*, Richards and Rodgers (2001) used the terms TBLT and TBI interchangeably. Meanwhile, the British Council on their website (https://www.teachingEnglish.org.uk) and their publications used the term TBL (Task-based Learning). Samuda (2001, 2013) used the term TBLT, Skehan (2003) and Swan (2005) referred to the task-based approach as TBI. The Japan Association of Language Teaching (JALT) also uses the term TBL for task-based approaches and established the Japanese TBL Special Interest Group (SIG). This term, TBL, was also in use in Australia (Kebble, 2012). Willis and Willis (2015) in their Willis-ELT (English Language Teaching) website referred to the task-based approach as both TBLT and TBL. Moreover, the World Association for Task-Based Language Teaching (http://www.tblt.org) uses TBLT as the name of its association and website. Given this often confusing context, I have chosen to use TBLT as it covers both the task-based approach and language teaching.

The term 'task-based' was first introduced in the 1950s by the US military for training with new equipment and occupational needs. It started to be used in school education in the 1970s (Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, 2001) and in language teaching in the early 1980s (East, 2017; Lai & Li, 2011; Prabhu, 1987) in the Bangalore Project led by Dr N.S Prabhu. Consequently, it flourished in the 1980s and 1990s (Skehan, 1998).

The development of communicative language teaching (CLT) has contributed to the use of tasks to develop language acquisition (Littlewood, 2014; Nunan, 2004; Richards, 2005). TBLT has developed for over 40 years (Lai & Li, 2011; Littlewood, 2014) arising from a dissatisfaction with CLT which was not sufficiently communicative and was not ideal for EFL learners. TBLT facilitated a natural way of learning languages. Being communicative does not occur automatically as second or foreign language learners have to think about the correct pattern to convey their ideas. Their ability to communicate becomes limited to producing or following given forms. In the CLT approach, for example, a *Present Practice Produce* (PPP) model, which is form-focused language learning, learners produced the language by copying the structure of the language presented in the *Present* stage. Natural and spontaneous production of the language is not accomplished (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1997). In response to this challenge, TBLT developed as a more natural method to enable students to acquire the target language from interaction within meaning-focused contexts.

TBLT was influenced by theories of learning rather than theories of language acquisition (Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, 2001). TBLT is aimed at meaning-focused language learning, where the linguistics element comes at the end of the learning sequence. TBLT enables learners to use the language for themselves in real communicative situations (Carless, 2009; Willis & Willis, 2007).

TBLT has been implemented as a national teaching approach for second and foreign language learning since the mid-1990s in secondary schools in Hong Kong since 2001 (Carless, 2009) and at primary level in New Zealand and Vietnam (Hung, 2014; Van den Branden, 2016). This thesis focuses on teaching at a vocational higher education institute, but the lessons learned from implementation at lower levels are instructive.

2.2.1 The concept of ‘task’

While the concept of ‘task’ has been in some cases considered to be interchangeable with ‘exercise’ in the classroom (e.g. Lee, 2000), they need to be differentiated. Skehan (1998) distinguished between the two terms in this respect (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 How to differentiate 'exercise' and 'task' (Skehan, 1998)

	Exercise	Task
Orientation	Linguistic skills viewed as a prerequisite for learning communicative abilities	Linguistic skills are developed through engaging in communicative activity
Focus	Linguistic form and semantic Meaning (‘focus on form’)	Propositional content and pragmatic communicative meaning (‘focus on meaning’)
Goal	Manifestation of code knowledge	Achievement of a communicative goal
Outcome-evaluation	Performance evaluated in terms of conformity to the code	Performance evaluated in terms of whether the communicative goal has been achieved
Real-world relationship	Internalization of linguistic skills serves as an instrument for future use	There is a direct and obvious relationship between the activity that arises from the task and natural communicative activity

As indicated in Table 2.1, there is a clear boundary between the two as “exercises” enable learners to present their linguistic knowledge, while “tasks” enable learners to perform this knowledge.

Ellis (2015) emphasised that TBLT is an approach to teaching and there is no clear definition of a task. Various researchers have defined ‘task’. Their views are summarised by Van den Branden (2016), and Ellis (2003). Two points are worth highlighting. Firstly, *tasks* are classroom activities that enable students to use words and phrases to convey their meaning or intentions, i.e., a *task* is any activity that triggers verbal communication. A group of authors maintain that the process is the key for the activity to be labelled as a ‘task’. However, Ellis (2003), Lee (2000), Nunan (1989), Prabhu (1987), and Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) believed that the process is part of the task element. A second group, such as Crookes (1986), Skehan (1996), and Van den Branden (2006; 2016) maintained that tasks lack the element of process. When *tasks* are assessed only through the outcomes or products of learning, the concept of learning might not be successfully achieved. It might cause disorientation in learning, for example, as the learning becomes examination-oriented. When task-based learning is emphasised only as producing an outcome, it might result in unsuccessful language acquisition as well (Carless, 2003; Ellis, 2009; Sato, 2010). However, further study is required in order to draw a conclusion on this matter.

Secondly, *tasks* must focus on meaning and process, and they require an outcome. The characteristics of *tasks*: 1) involve a primary focus on (semantic and pragmatic) meaning, 2) have some kind of ‘gap’ (i.e. a need to convey information, to

express an opinion or to infer the meaning), 3) provide freedom for choosing the linguistic or non-linguistics resources that learners need to complete their task, and 4) have a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome, i.e. the language serves as the means for achieving the outcome, not as an end in its own right (Ellis, 2009; 2003). In addition, TBLT should deal with four elements: meaning focus, problem-solving motivated activities, allowing non-linguistics usage, and product-oriented activities (Ellis, 2015).

According to Beglar and Hunt (2005) natural cognitive processes, either consciously or unconsciously, are created through a task-based approach to language teaching, and a particular aspect of language code will be formed. In my opinion, TBLT should start with a task designed to transfer intended meaning. If the learning begins with teaching the form or language pattern, it is a PPP-based learning. PPP may result in grammatically correct sentences that satisfy language exams, but learners often fail in communicative contexts.

A task should be an activity that enables learners to use the language they are learning, rather than an activity that makes the learners think hard about what is grammatically correct when they want to express their idea in the target language. This study thus follows the definition of *task* introduced by Ellis (2003, p.16) “Like other language activities, a *task* can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills, and also a various cognitive process”. This definition provides clear guidance for the research design in this study. It also provides a clear concept of a written *task* to be developed in the teaching of writing; the main concern of this study. How to implement TBLT in the teaching context is discussed in the following section.

2.2.2 A framework for the implementation of TBLT

Moving on from the concept of TBLT, this section discusses frameworks for implementing the approach. Ellis (2003, p. 179) stated that “The implication for effective task-based learning is that tasks must be structured in such a way that they pose an appropriate challenge by requiring learners to perform functions and use language that enables them to dynamically construct ZPDs”. The concept of ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development) was popularised by the Soviet psychologist, Lev Vygotsky in 1896–1934) and it refers to a situation which differentiates between what learners can do and cannot do without help. It focuses on the process of learning rather than on language acquisition and is claimed to improve students’ motivation. Tasks should be authentic and relevant to the specific needs of the learners (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Students are expected to focus on performing a task rather than worrying about language errors and mistakes. Form-focused activities are positioned at the end of the learning process, not as the main emphasis of the learning. TBLT, therefore, does not start by teaching linguistic structures but uses processes involving the transfer of intended meanings, which result in turn in the acquisition of the target language. Exposure to language use is intensified throughout the learning cycle and correction to improve accuracy is performed at the end of the cycle.

Let's explore five main references to TBLT frameworks. Trifold's concept of TBLT also applied by four other TBLT initiators. Ellis (2006, 2003), Nunan (2004), Samuda (2001, 2013), and Willis (1996) categorised TBLT frameworks into three main areas that can be summarised as pre-task, task, and post-task, although they used different terms for these elements. These three stages of task frameworks are in line with the process-oriented period of motivation in language learning theory introduced by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998). Further aspects of this process-oriented period of motivation in the language learning theory are explored in Chapter 3. Another threefold TBLT framework was introduced by Breen (1989). However, his framework contained a slight difference. Let us now consider reviewing these frameworks chronologically.

Firstly, Breen's (1989) concept of TBLT consisted of three phases of a task: task-as-workplan, task-in-process, and task-as-outcomes. The 'task-as-workplan' refers to the teaching of a planning stage prior to classroom application of what the teachers and learners will perform in their learning activities as. The second phase, the 'task-in-process', refers to the actual teaching and learning phase. It refers to what actually happens in the classroom. Any physical result of the learning activities that students produce is considered as the task-as-outcome. This outcome could be a piece of writing for example.

Secondly, Willis (1996) used the terms: *Pre-Task*, *Task Cycle*, and *Language Focus* (see Figure 2.1).

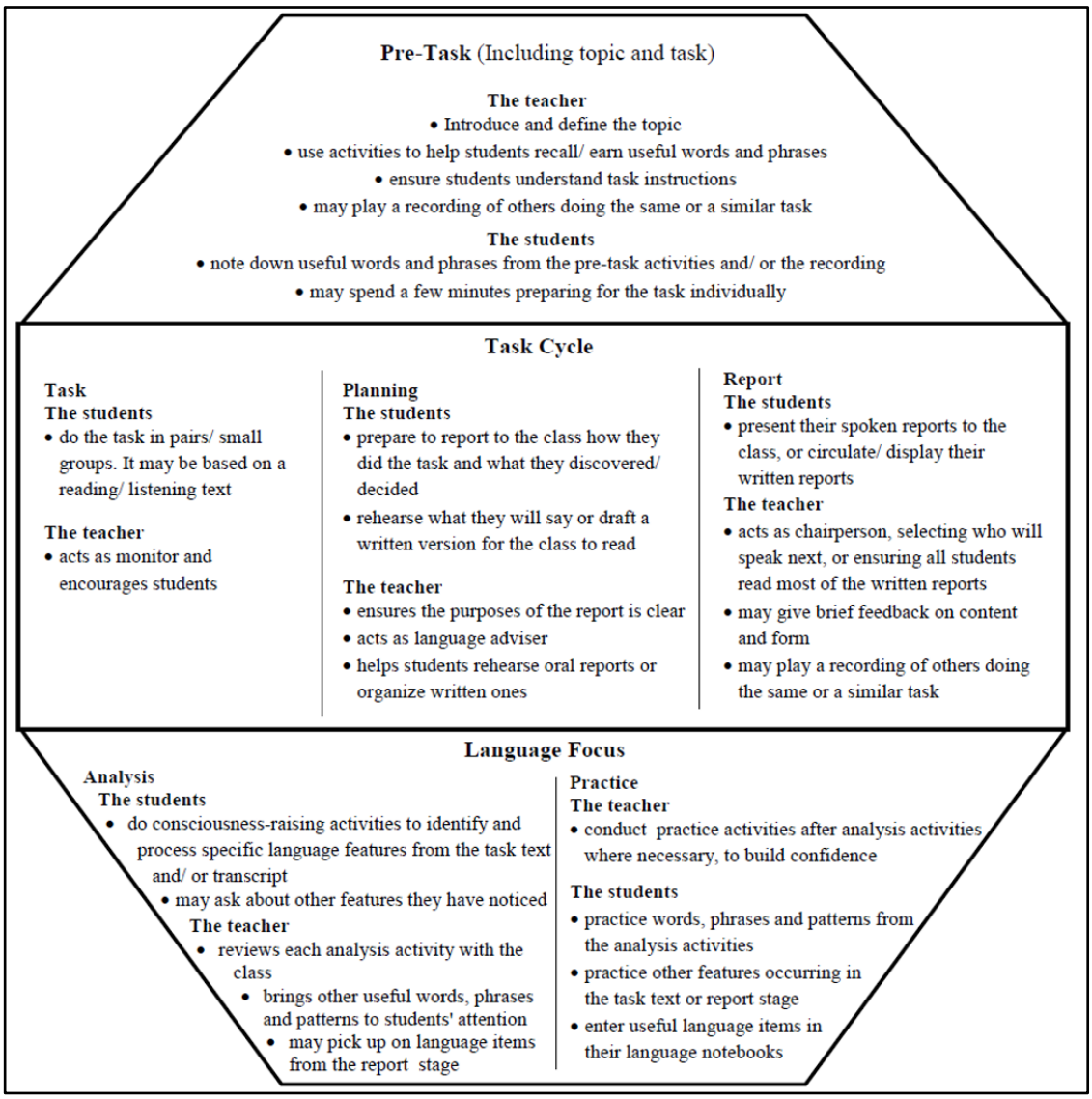

Figure 2.1 Willis' TBLT Framework (1996a,b)

Figure 2.1 describes Willis' TBLT Framework (Willis, 1996 a,b) that is similar to Ellis' framework (2003) in that both consist of three phases, yet they use different terms while sharing similar concepts. Willis' framework for TBLT involves a *pre-task*, *task cycle*, and *language focus*. The *pre-task* introduces the topic and the task. Teachers explore the topic with the class, highlight useful words and phrases, help students understand task instructions and prepare to attempt the tasks. Students may hear a recording of others doing a similar task for example. The second phase that Willis introduced is the *task cycle*: task, planning and reporting. Students work in pairs or a small group. The teacher monitors the activities and maintains distance to allow students to do their work. Students then prepare to report to the class orally or in writing. This report explains how

they perform the work and what they decided or learnt from doing. Following that, students present their report to the class. They may also exchange written reports and compare the results with other students. The final stage in Willis' framework is the *language focus* that Willis divided into analysis and practice, which will be emphasised by the end of the class. Students are expected to be able to analyse and discuss specific features of the text or transcript of the recording. In the practice part, it is expected that the teachers lead exercises to reinforce the new words, phrases, and patterns that arise in the task. This can be done either during or after the analysis.

Thirdly, Samuda (2001, 2013) also employed three basic components of TBLT frameworks: input data, operations on data, and outcomes that underpinned a meaning, form, and meaning progression. This framework is summarised as input data followed by operations on data and outcomes. It focuses on the semantic area and draws attention to the meaning-form relationship. The framework is explored in Figure 2.2.

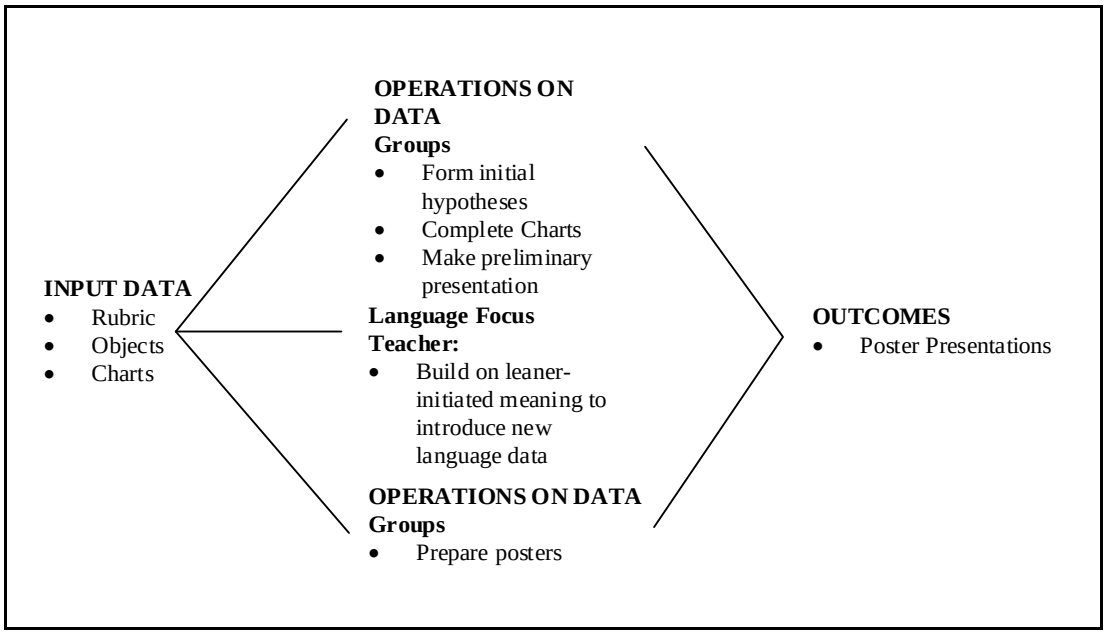

Figure 2.2 A task-based framework by Samuda (2001, 2013)

As indicated in Figure 2.2, the input data is expected to activate the need for learners to communicate (in groups or pairs) the language that has been supplied by their teachers. The input data is introduced semantically not linguistically. Learners activate their communication skills, prepare, then produce their outcome, e.g., a poster presentation. Learners recognise the form during the three stages between input and outcome. Thus, language learning takes places. Even though Samuda introduced her framework as described in Figure 2.2, she explained her research on task-based teaching as "pre-focus, language focus (implicit and explicit focus), and post-focus".

The fourth framework by Ellis (2006, 2003) suggested a comparable framework to implement TBLT and includes *pre-task*, *during task*, and *post-task* stages (see Table 2.2). Furthermore, Ellis emphasised that the post-task is the required phase to direct fluency and accuracy.

Table 2.2 A framework for task-based lessons (Ellis, 2003, p.244)

Phase	Examples of options
A. Pre-task	• framing the activity, e.g., establishing the outcome of the task • planning the time • doing a similar task
B. During task	• time pressure • number of participants
C. Post-task	• learner report • consciousness raising • repeat task

Table 2.2 describes a framework introduced by Ellis, which follows the same pattern of teaching language skills. The 'pre-task' suggests various activities for teachers and learners prior to starting the task, e.g., learners should be given time to plan or to introduce the learning context. It does not, however, explicitly teach certain language patterns. The 'during task' phase is the core activity and affords various instructional options. This phase is obligatory in a task-based teaching approach. It includes whether learners are required to operate under time-pressure or not. Students attempt to practice the language as a natural means of communication. The 'post-task' is the procedure for following-up on the task performance. Students again use the language to report their results which indicates how they used certain language patterns.

Nunan (2004) suggested an entirely different framework for TBLT implementation (Figure 2.3).

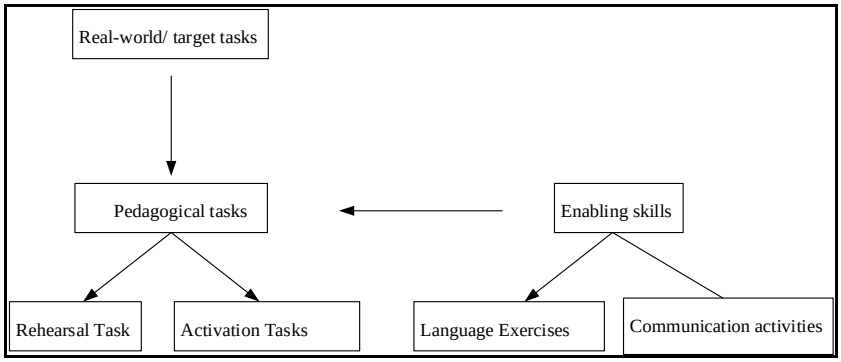

Figure 2.3 A framework for TBLT - Nunan (2004, p.25)

As indicated in Figure 2.3, Nunan referred to tasks as real-work/target tasks that consist of pedagogical tasks, which are either rehearsal or activation tasks. Both should enable

language skills exercises and communication activities. This framework is very different from the other frameworks discussed earlier. I consider that this not to be a framework as it does not provide clear guidance on the stages that teachers should follow to conduct task-based instruction.

In conclusion, the frameworks introduced by Willis (1996 a,b), Samuda (2001, 2013), and Ellis (2003, 2006) are basically similar. That by Samuda provides what I consider to be a solid picture of what task-based activities should be. It gives a clear picture of the stages of the activities as a series of tasks that are aimed at producing outcomes. However, Samuda's series of task-based activities could be considered a duplication of activities already in a PPP-based context. The input data seems to be similar to the present element in PPP. Compared to the framework by both Willis and by Ellis, it lacks the form-focused activities at the end of its series. Yet, as Samuda (2011) explained, however, she focused on the semantic input; the form-focused input is integrated into the whole process of task performance for learners to identify unconsciously.

The frameworks by Willis (1996 a,b), Samuda (2001, 2013), and Ellis (2003, 2006) are applicable to my research study. As noted above, a series of task stages must be performed to implement TBLT. The last phase each of these frameworks involves a review or recap of the language element. The emphasis is first placed on meaning. After that, the student is able to communicate effectively. The teacher introduces focus-on-form ('FonF') when improved grammar is taught at the end of the learning process through recap activities. 'FonF' refers to an approach to language education in which learners are only made aware of the grammatical form of language features when they are already able to use communicatively. This two-step method (Focus on meaning followed by FoF) has been shown to relax students, and they learn in a more effective and enjoyable way (Abrams, Zsuzsanna Ittzes, 2016; Bao & Du, 2015; Chen, 2016; Chunrao & Carless, 2009; East & Cushing, 2016; Jon, 2012; Khodabakhshzadeh & Mousavi, 2012; Sholihah, 2013). Students focus on delivering their message instead on correct utterances or sentences.

"Task" was defined as a classroom work which activates learning through engagement to perform an intended task. Furthermore, it sets students free from the worry of making language errors and mistakes (Nunan, 2006). Other authors also noted the same effectiveness of this approach (Abraham, 2015; Kotaka, 2013; Kwon, 2008;

Murakami, Valvona, & Broudy, 2012; Phuong, Van den Branden, Van Steendam, & Sercu, 2015).

After careful review of the four TBLT frameworks suggested by these four authors, I consider that by Willis to be the most appropriate. I have chosen Willis's framework because the final stage indicates the use of a clear language focus. It differentiates this cycle from the stages of teaching language skills that is also divided by three stages of pre-, during, and post- activities. I agree with Willis's framework as it makes the learning implicit and enables natural language processing. I consider this superior to explicit learning where learners are exposed to the patterns at the beginning of the lesson. From this point onward, this thesis limits the framework to Willis' framework for the TBLT context and relates this review to the six task types that Willis recommends as discussed in the next section.

2.2.3 Task types

Shehadeh and Combe (2010) emphasised the importance of identifying the appropriate task to engage learners to acquire fluent, accurate, and complex target language performance. In this section, five references on task types are reviewed: Prabhu (1987), Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993), Willis (1996), Bygate (2001), and Nunan (2004).

Prabhu (1987) listed only reasoning-gap activities from his Bangalore project and divided these into three categories: information-gap (e.g., pair work in which each learner has a part of the total information), reasoning-gap (e.g., deciding which action is the best option), and opinion-gap (e.g., articulating personal preferences in a discussion of social issues).

Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993) divided that task types into five categories: jigsaw (e.g., combining different pieces of information to create a whole unit), information-gap (e.g., each of two students has different information and negotiates to find their peer's information), problem-solving (e.g., students must find the correct solution to a problem from the available list), decision-making (e.g., solving an open-ended problem by discussing multiple options and choosing the best one), and opinion exchange (e.g., exchanging ideas without the need to come to a consensus).

Willis (1996) grouped *tasks* into six types: 1) listing (e.g., making a list of particular things), 2) ordering (e.g., ordering the instructions for cooking), 3) comparing (e.g., reading or listening to a car accident report, and say which diagram most

accurately portrays what happened), 4) problem solving (e.g., cutting a cake, what is the maximum numbers of straight cuts that must be made to divide a round cake into eight equal pieces), 5) sharing personal experiences (e.g., sharing attitudes or opinions), and 6) creative (e.g., taking part in a dressing up competition, putting on a show for other groups).

Two other authors divided task types into two. Bygate (2001) in his project on the effect of task repetition on the oral language used two *task* types: narrative and interview. These two *task* types are not on the list of either of the references reviewed above. Nunan (2004) also grouped *task* into real-world and pedagogic types. The real-world tasks are created to practise the language needed in real life. Meanwhile, pedagogic tasks refer to classroom-based guided language exchanges.

To conclude, TBLT is an approach to language teaching that emphasises the use of task as a medium of learning. It aims to enable learners to think and communicate in the target language as naturally as they do in their first language. However, whether TBLT implementation is successful in the learning of English in a second and foreign language context is still a challenge. The following section explores the implementation and the particular challenges of TBLT in the Asia context.

2.3 TBLT in Asia: The challenges

TBLT is an improvement on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), as has been discussed earlier in section 2.2. Although TBLT was first used in the Bangalore and Malaysian projects in Asia, many researchers felt that the application of TBLT in Asia was problematic (Carless, 2003, 2009; Ellis, 2003; Littlewood, 2014, 2015; Mustafa, Zarina, 2010; Ortega, 2012; Thomas & Reinders, 2015). This assumption was based on cultural differences that affected learning in EFL teaching in the region (Carless, 2003; 2009; Helmke & Tuyet, 1999; Littlewood, 2007). Research findings show common themes. Carless (2009) noted that EFL teaching in Asia was characterised by 1) large class sizes, 2) an examination-oriented system, 3) lack of teaching expertise in task-based approaches, 4) a preference for Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) teaching, 5) direct grammar instruction, 6) teacher-centred, 7) didactic, and 8) non-interactive forms of teaching. Carless also pointed out that TBLT conflicted with the Confucian-heritage culture (Chinese, Japanese, Singaporean, and Vietnamese) in Hong Kong.

Other authors suggested that learning strategies and study time (Helmke & Tuyet, 1999) and achievement-oriented attitudes and motivation (Le Ha, 2014) also inhibited the teaching and learning in Asia. Thirdly, Littlewood (2007) reported that the nature of non-student-oriented activities, grammar translation methods and audio-lingual methods both led to passive learning on the continent. In particular, Littlewood noted five concerns relating to the implementation CLT and TBLT in East Asian classrooms: 1) classroom management, 2) avoidance of English, 3) minimal demands on language competence, 4) incompatibility with public assessment demands, and 5) conflict with established educational values and tradition.

In her plenary talk at the Japan Society of English Language Education (JASELE) Conference, Ortega (2012) addressed Asian EFL realities that contradicted the TBLT ideals. Based on Ortega's analysis, there are four problems 1) classroom management, 2) the use of the first language, 3) written language focus, and 4) teachers' communication proficiency. In addition to the class the factor listed above, Mustafa (2010) in her study on Malaysian learners added exam-oriented education, teacher's initiatives, and assigning a task in a mixed ability class as the issues facing the implementation of TBLT.

A second early advocate of TBLT in Asia was Littlewood (2007) who felt that it reduced pedagogical challenges. Thus, Littlewood encouraged East Asian English teachers to act locally for their TBLT implementation. Littlewood, however, did not recommend using only TBLT but to integrate elements into the traditional approaches to teaching, i.e., Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) and grammar-based as he noted that PPP was an effective way to manage large classes.

Ortega (2012) reintroduced the TBLT approach to teaching EFL curricula in Japan, Iran, and Indonesia and indicated that students' passive learning style, low motivation to learn, high dependency on teachers, and large class sizes could be overcome by "glocalized" TBLT. Ortega recommended English teachers to "think globally" and "act locally" to solve the problems of students' passive learning style, low motivation to learn, high dependency on teachers, and large class sizes. Similarly, Ellis (2015) agreed with the suggestion of Littlewood (2007) that in South East Asia TBLT be combined with the traditional approaches of teaching (e.g., PPP and grammar-based teaching). Therefore, it was expected to solve the problem of the class size.

Ellis (2015) also called for the use of TBLT in Asia to counteract the passive forms of learning often identified with Asian learners. According to Ellis (2015), TBLT is a means for creating conditions to enable students to foster their skills and improve their passive learning style, which is due to their limited experience of classroom contact with active learning. This review of the challenges of TBLT implementation in Asia will help establish the specific context for Indonesia.

Passos De Oleira (2004) argued that TBLT in an EFL context is also affected by the institutional and social factors (e.g., the use of native language, socialisation problems, local culture, status, and the relationship between students and teachers, and demands of the local community). Despite being a possible solution to overcoming motivation issues, as suggested by Carless (2009) in a broader context, Mufida, Mukhyaiyar and Radjab (2013) observed that the implementation of TBLT in Indonesia was challenging in terms of authenticity, as well as institutional and social factors. Tasks should be authentic in two respects: the products that students have to produce and in the specific needs of the learners (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The implementation of TBLT studies in Indonesian poses the same problems as in other parts of the Asia. TBLT research in higher education in Indonesian was identified (Widodo, 2015; Yundayani, Emzir, & Rafli, 2018). Widodo (2015) found that TBLT implementation in Indonesian vocational institutions was effective for text navigating in reading comprehension. A significant influence of TBLT in teaching academic writing was reported by Yundayani *et al*., (2018). In relation to the particular question of motivation in the Indonesian context, Mufida, Mukhaiyar and Radjab (2013) believed that Competency-Based Instruction (CBI) and TBLT affect students' motivation. However, their findings were limited to the teaching of speaking skills.

2.4 Teaching English writing skills

This section will now move on to discuss the studies on TBLT and the teaching of writing skills, which is the least explored language skill in the research. Speaking and listening are the most frequently explored skills (Ahmadian, Rahimi & Asefi, 2016; Gass, Mackey & Ross-Feldman, 2011; Hooper *et al.*, 2010; Preston & Seedhouse, 2013; Seedhouse *et al*., 2013; Seedhouse, 2017; Seedhouse & Almutairi, 2009; Widodo, 2015). In order to cover the main issues relating to the teaching of writing skills, this section reviews the comparison between writing and other skills in EFL, the challenges for the teaching and learning of writing skills, and teaching English writing skills in the

Indonesian EFL context. In addition to this, sections on writing skills and a review of the use of technology to teach writing skills is given in Section 2.6.3 entitled, "Technology as a Learning Tool in Writing Classes".

2.4.1 Writing skills in EFL

Writing skills are challenging for foreign language learners, as well as native language users (Graham, 2006; Lavelle & Bushrow, 2007; Mastan, Maarof & Embi, 2017; Prior, 2006). This phenomenon was also validated by a report from the U.K. Education Standards Research Team (2012) which confirmed that the worst performance among U.K students was in writing. Even though this report was focused on students from primary school, the students wrote in their native language, which is more challenging for foreign language learners. As writing is considered a difficult literacy skill that hinders academic and career development (Tan, Emerson & White, 2017), it has become an important priority for students and teachers. The lack of interest in learning writing skills is based on insufficient linguistic proficiency (including command over grammar, syntax and vocabulary), writing anxiety, lack of ideas, and reliance on L1 and weak structure organization (Fareed, Ashraf & Bilal, 2016). However, this poor writing proficiency does not only occur among the foreign language learners but also the first language learners (Getachew, Tadesse & Kebede, 2018).

In the period between 2014 and 2018, there was limited research on English writing skills as reported in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Research published on English writing skills in academic journals

Numbers Research articles on '**writing skills**' published	Total Numbers Research articles published	Number of Volumes and Issues Published	Per Cent	Scope	Name of the Journal
16	163	20	10%	International	ELT Journal
17	108	12	16%		TESOL International Journal
22	142	19	15%	Asia	The Journal of AsiaTEFL
1	39	10	3%		JALT Journal
7	73	7	10%		Korea TESOL Journal
31	194	24	16%	South-eastern	The Asian EFL Journal
5	33	8	15%	Asian	Language Education in Asia
3	33	8	9%	Indonesia	TEFLIN Journal
32	222	12	14%		Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics

From Table 2.3, it is evident that writing was the least researched language skill in international, Asian and Indonesian academic journals, as articles on the topic ranged from 3% to 16% of the total.

No specific studies were found in relation to students' perspectives on improving English writing skills. Similarly, literature searches for teachers' perspectives on learners' writing skills did not provide evidence on the issue. The majority of the studies reported on the specific topic of writing skills as well as the effect of feedback on writing skills (Lee, Lee & Hwang, 2015), problems and factors in acquiring writing skills (Fareed, Ashraf & Bilal, 2016), integrated reading and writing activities in a certain region (Cho, & Brutt-Griffler, 2015), a call for reforming ESL writing instruction (Tan, Emerson & White, 2017), and causes and effects of second language writing anxiety (Daud, Daud & Kassim, 2016). However, none of these sources mentioned specific learners' and teachers' perspectives on English writing skills.

Most of the studies on writing skills were conducted at the postgraduate level and involved students studying in western universities. In addition, these studies also did not cover students' and teachers' perspective on how challenging writing skills were. A study by Storch and Tapper (2009) looked at the impact of an EAP course on postgraduate writing and found that there were improvements in the students' writing ability in terms of accuracy, use of academic vocabulary, and structure of their writing. However, this study focused on students studying at a postgraduate level in an Australian university and thus the research findings are not generalisable to students in a polytechnic or studying at the college level in Indonesia. A similar context of study with respect to writing skills among students studying in Australia was reported by Ingram and Bayliss (2007), who found that generally ability in producing academic writing was related to IELTS test scores but failed to prove a relationship between IELTS scores and student performance in course-related tasks as they found it beyond the scope of the proficiency test.

2.4.2 Challenges for teaching and learning writing

It is evident then, that various factors affect the teaching and learning of writing skills. Among these factors are untrained teachers, ineffective teaching methods and examination systems, lack of reading and writing practice, large classrooms, low motivation and lack of proficiency in creating ideas (Fareed, Ashraf & Bilal, 2016). In order to review these factors, I have grouped them into three main categories: technical

aspects, motivation, and cultural issues. Two aspects are covered in this section in relation to the technical aspects from teachers' and students' perspectives on the process of teaching and learning writing skills. According to Fernandez, Peyton and Schaetzel (2017), class size and time spent writing were the main reasons for writing skills improvement. Similar findings were reported by Manning (2017) who emphasised that teaching writing skills requires longer marking time and more administrative work for teachers. For these reasons, investing in teachers' time in providing feedback and marking may contribute to improvements in students' writing ability. In a situation where teachers are not given enough time to provide attention, feedback and proper time for marking, it will affect teaching and learning objectives adversely. Therefore, students might not learn enough and improve their writing ability when their teachers have to face issues involving large class sizes and increased marking time. Similarly, having limited time to plan, write and edit writing will also cause challenges for writing skills improvement for the students.

Secondly, motivation to start and finalise their writing is identified as a big challenge for teachers to help students improve their writing proficiency (Fareed, Ashraf & Bilal, 2016). Lastly, cultural issues have been identified as difficulties that students face in developing good writing in English. Writing in a foreign language is not only a difficult process in terms of language limitations but also as a result of cultural differences. Written expression is difficult and consequently writing in a foreign language is challenging (Bayat, 2014). Added to this fact, transferring ideas into a different language that is associated with significant cultural differences may also add to the challenges in the mind of the writer. Structuring ideas and jotting them down into written language in a logical sequence requires significant concentration and attention to detail. Mirhosseini and Kianfar (2019), for example, stated that writing is very impersonal knowledge and writing in a foreign language can be more complicated than writing in one's mother tongue. Since it is impersonal knowledge, no teacher can help their students to produce a piece of writing. Teachers can only provide guidance of what good writing is as it is for the students to process all the knowledge they have in their mind and deliver it in their writing.

2.4.3 Teaching writing skills in the TBLT context

This section reviews literature on EFL writing skills by applying a top-down approach from English for Academic Purposes (EAP) to General English (GE). To begin with, let us review the English writing skills of international students studying in Australian

universities. Australia is as an English-speaking country that can help us understand the context of English writing abilities and teaching methods. As I have previously noted, students in an EAP context may have better English skills compared to students at the general English level; this difference is the focus of this current study. Research has indicated that English writing proficiency does not predict the success of non-English students in their English for EAP writing tasks in Australian universities (Ingram & Bayliss, 2007). In other words, higher English proficiency was not a predictor of having good writing skills. Storch and Tapper (2009), moreover, recorded that at undergraduate and postgraduate levels, improvement of students' writing was limited to structure and register; linguistic accuracy or complexity did not always improve. It is evident then that improving students' writing ability is challenging in EAP environments. Whether or not this is the case for lower levels when using the TBLT approach is explored in this section.

As been reviewed earlier in Section 2.3, the implementation of TBLT should be combined with other approaches. However, no previous research has recorded the success of the TBLT approach in improving English writing skills. Abrams and Byrd (2017) recorded how collaborative, meaning-focused pre-writing tasks improved grammatical accuracy, lexical richness, and the overall quality of the writing. It was emphasised that the pre-writing stage played a crucial role in developing writing skills. Thus, the TBLT approach was applicable for teaching writing skills. Yasuda (2017) also noted that TBLT combined with Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and genre-based tasks were effective in improving English writing skills, particularly in writing for college students.

2.4.4 Writing skills in the Indonesian EFL context

This thesis limits its review to the teaching of writing skills in the Indonesian EFL context. Due to the lack of research on this context, however, research from other or similar countries will be examined. Talebi, Aidinlou and Farhadi (2015), for example, reported that writing task development was confirmed in their study, but that grammatical accuracy did not improve equally. While the study was conducted in Iran and the generalisability of the research is problematic, the main weakness of the study was the failure to address how information gaps could enhance writing ability. It might end up in fact by replicating traditional grammar-based teaching in spite of the TBL approach.

Thus far, the thesis has reviewed the literature on TBLT in the particular teaching context of writing. As mentioned earlier, TBLT was considered to be potentially motivating for students to improve their English skills by doing the tasks. The section that follows covers the affective factors that influence students' persistence in learning a foreign language. Having reviewed the literature on the definition of TBLT, the frameworks, task types, its implementation challenges, and possible solutions to the EFL teaching in the Asian and local context, TBLT is expected by Carless (2003, 2009) and Littlewood (2014) to be an effective approach for teaching writing skills in vocational contexts. This idea was supported by Harris (2018) who argued that TBLT improved students' language proficiency and motivation by adjusting the implementation based on students' proficiency level. The finding was based on interviews with ten native and non-native English teachers from schools and universities in Japan that Harris reported might not be relevant in every Asian EFL context. Further investigation of different teaching environments is needed to enrich our knowledge of the implementation of TLBT in Asian teaching contexts.

2.5 TBLT and language learner motivation

Based on the review of the research literature on TBLT, language teachers are free to create any task-related activities in their class that they feel will enjoyably engage their students. This position is a logical continuation of Ellis's contention (2003) that a task can refer to any language-based activity. A critique from Seedhouse and Knight (2016) argued that they failed to produce enjoyable, motivating and engaging tasks in the classroom interaction. As a result, a key question arises: will the type of task influence the criteria of being enjoyable and motivating for students in TBLT classes?

A task-based approach to second and foreign language learning is psychologically motivating (Ellis, 2006). Furthermore, Richards and Rodgers (2001) claimed that task-based activities and achievement motivate learners. Despite manifest challenges to the implementation of TBLT in Asian, several researchers consider that the system has much to offer. In an early study of TBLT for primary school students in Hong Kong, Carless, (2003) found that after accessing the students' language proficiency in their pre-class planning, the teacher must adapt their task-based approach according to both local and the learners' needs. If they did, the method was successful. Six years later, Carless again recommended the implementation of TBLT as a means of enhancing motivation (Carless, 2009). Tasks refer to goal-oriented efforts that learners

make to produce a product in a given time, which requires them to use the target language. Students are expected to learn the language through worthwhile activities which include group discussions (Seedhouse, 1999; Willis, 2000). Willis and Willis (2007) contrasted the meaning-focused approach of TBLT with a form-focused approach and suggested that TBLT frees students from making mistakes in using the language and enables them to convey their meaning in doing their activities.

A review of the research literature on affective factors in EFL learning contexts is the purpose of this section. It covers issues relating to foreign language learning motivation, learning strategies, and research on language learning motivation in Indonesia.

2.5.1 Theories of motivation

In this section the literature on theories of motivation is reviewed under six subthemes: 1). definitions of motivation from psychology, education and language learning; 2). types of motivation in language learning; 3). gaps identified from the types of motivation; 4). the stages of motivational development; 5). technology and motivation in language learning; and 6). research on motivation in Indonesia.

2.5.1.1 Defining motivation

Defining motivation is an important part in this thesis and it should be understood that motivation is an abstract concept and is difficult to measure (Barba, Kennedy, & Ainley, 2016; Crookes & Schmidt, 1989; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Gardner, 1985). The word motivation itself derives from the Latin *movere* “to move”. Let us begin by examining the psychological perspective.

2.5.1.2 The psychological perspective

The psychological point of view associates motivation with mental determinants. Motivation has been defined from a psychology perspective by a number of researchers as (a) having purposes, intents, aims, goals, and decisions (Young, 1961), (b) “the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained” (Schunk, Meece, & Pintrich, 2008, p.4), and, (c) the drive for people in doing their activities to gain a certain purpose (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Young (1961) drew a distinction between habits and motives. According to Young (1961), habits lack attributes that motivation has. Motivation persists in time and can build up tension or cause action, are repeated actions, but habits do not lead to action. Furthermore, Young stated that postulated motivation persists in time and has various attributes. Habits are understood as repeated actions that may not change someone. For example, having a habit of smoking may cause difficulties for someone to stop having a cigarette. Therefore, the smokers might not be motivated to stop. In contrast, having seen one of their close acquaintances acquire a critical health condition might motivate them to stop smoking.

Motivation can also be defined by understanding it as a process (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Schunk *et al*., 2008). It grows and changes over time. The concept of motivation is complex, inconstant and dynamic (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013; MacIntyre & Blackie, 2012; Young, 1961). It is complex because it is an abstract construct that deals with intentions; high motivation might not lead to high test scores. Motivation may also be observable from activities and actions. Therefore, test scores alone are not an accurate reflection of one's motivation. Motivation might only be observable from activities and actions which can be found in a process of doing something.

Moreover, motivation is both intrinsic and extrinsic and mostly situated and influenced by many factors. Motivation might also change over time, and it is mostly personal because it might change over time in line with the changes happening in an individual's life, regardless of age. Many factors (e.g., people that one meets in life, good or bad experiences, problems, and enjoyment) influence people's intentions and their willingness to achieve something. These changes are observable in both children and adults.

The first definition provided by Young (1961) and the third definition by Deci and Ryan (1985) lack a dynamic element compared to the second definition by Schunk, Meece and Pintrich (2008). Young's point about the persistence of time contradicts human nature and the logic being explored in this thesis which is centred on the *dynamic* aspect of motivation. As a dynamic creature, human beings change over time and so does their motivation. Two points in Young's definition are evaluated in this section. First, Young's concept about the persistence of time can be associated with remaining the same through time. However, the reasons for doing something might change over time and be influenced by surroundings and experiences.

On the other hand, one might not have the intention to do something, but their situation develops, as necessity motivates them to learn new skill. As an example, the persistence of time can be understood from the motivation of anthropology researchers to learn the language of the people being observed in their research. This may take years but is essential to allow the direct communication to collect the primary data they require. This effort was not related to their daily habitual action. However, having a drive to communicate and be understood by their target audience causes the researcher to acquire the language for daily communication. In contrast, in school-based language learning, motivation evolves, either over a short or longer time because the students do not have an immediate urge to acquire the language.

A similar problem is found in the third definition given by Deci and Ryan (1985) that motivation is the drive for someone to do something; but drive is strongly influenced by extrinsic factors. It may lessen, or even cease, or it may strengthen. Again, this thesis highlights the importance of a dynamic understanding of motivation. The drive to do something (Deci & Ryan, 1985) can be explored by tracing it back to the starting point and asking why a person does something. However, when it is carefully observed, motivation can also be detected at a certain point in time, as the reason for doing something might change. Instead of having an intrinsic drive, a person's motivation might change due to extrinsic reasoning for their actions and vice versa. It is also possible that they might not have any reason for doing something from the beginning or might lose reasons for doing it along the way. For example, a student might withdraw from their studies due to having less interest or become more interested after studying for one week.

Schunk, Meece and Pintrich (2008) also defined motivation as a process, an understanding that satisfies its on-going and dynamic nature. A process starts by having a purpose that persists throughout. Motivation involves goals and activities that are instigated and sustained. Instigated means that motivation will bring about or initiate an action or an event and sustained refers to the fact that motivation will be continuing for an extended period without interruption.

Young (1961) introduced four useful determinants of motivation: 1) activating, 2) regulating and directing, 3) predisposing, and 4) organising. Activating determinants are those that "arouse, evoke, stimulate, investigate, and initiate action through energy transformations within the issue" (Young, 1961, p.13). Regulating and directing determinants are active or passive and orient, steer, channel, limit, or restrict the course

of the action without activating the behaviour. Predisposing can be exemplified by the example of a person who has mislaid a possession, as they are "predisposed" to find it. The last determinant, organising, refers to creating new patterns of action. It differs from learning through exercise and is more relevant to the patterns that are likely to be learned. For the sake of learning, teachers can utilise this determinant in their teaching to improve their students' motivation and thus the learning outcome.

While a variety of definitions of the term motivation have been suggested, this thesis will use the definition first suggested by Schunk *et al*. (2008), who saw motivation as a process that is evident in anything that people are doing and is inspired by their purpose of doing it. In addition, since it is seen as a process, the purpose might change over time and be affected by different aspects.

2.5.1.3 Motivation in an education and language learning perspective

Moving from psychology to a language learning point of view, Gardner and Lambert are well-known motivation researchers whose research on language learning motivation is reviewed in this section. According to Malcolm (2013), motivation theory in language learning and teaching started in 1959 as a result of research conducted by Gardner and Lambert in Canada. Ellis (2015) argued that an increasing amount of research on motivation in language learning emerged in the 1970s and 1980s with Gardner and Lambert's 1972 understanding of the social psychological constructs of integrative motivation particularly influential.

Researchers generally accept that the reason why a person learns a language is a highly influential factor in the overall process (Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b; Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Even though these two aspects of motivation – the dynamic and process aspects - were not mentioned in earlier definitions, further theories in language learning motivation have contain these two elements with greater regularity. Gardner (1985), for example, revealed three components of motivation in language learning as 1) motivational intensity or effort, 2) desire to learn the language, and 3) attitudes towards learning the language. From this definition, a dynamic aspect is not explicitly identified but the word "effort" clearly suggests the importance of process and dynamism overall.

In contrast, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) stated that the concept of motivation is best considered in terms of the direction and magnitude of human behaviour, i.e., the choice of a particular action and the persistence with it. For Dörnyei and Ushioda that

the dynamic aspect of motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it. Furthermore, motivation is located naturally within the individual and influenced by various social and environmental factors. One can maintain or has a particular motivational level which may change over time as s/he receives influences from his/her surroundings. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) stressed the importance of persistence i.e., "The fact of continuing in an opinion or course of action in spite of difficulty or opposition" (Persistence, n.d). From the definitions above, it is evident that a motivated language learner is one who intends to reach their target by doing the things they want to. However, this invites the question: do previous definitions of motivation adequately explain how learners behave when they have enrolled in a course without a clear intention of what they are really doing and what they want to achieve?

It is clear that the reason why a person wishes to learn a second or foreign language is an influential factor (Dörnyei, 2001b; Gardner & Lambert, 1959). While, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) re-emphasised that examining motivation is harder to do in a situated manner and thus suggested that in future it be explored in a task-based framework. While research on learner motivation in language learning in higher education has led to many studies, the use of a technology-mediated approach involving task-based approaches is in need of further study.

2.5.2 Types of motivation

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are discussed here. Young (1961), defined intrinsic motivation as the willingness to do or to learn something without expecting incentives for doing so. Conversely, extrinsic motivation is incentive-driven. It is generally held that intrinsic motivation is claimed to be more self-sustained, the other is not. Other people or things related to it are needed in order to maintain motivation. Both extrinsic and intrinsic are mainly the same as instrumental and integrative motivation and researchers such as Gardner and Lambert (1972) built their educational theory on motivation based on instrumental and integrative types of motivation.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) also claimed that integrative motivation was more influential in learning non-native languages. However, this research derived from the context of North American language learning. Integrative motivation is typified by one's willingness to acquire the language voluntarily without having an additional value from having acquired the language. In this case learners are eager to be identified as the

native users of the language and it mainly refers to learners' desire to learn a language in order to communicate with people of different cultures who speak the language that the learners are studying. Those who are internally encouraged to get in touch with any element of activities or language or culture of the native language users are considered to have integrative motivation.

Gardner and Lambert (1959) defined integrated motivation as the 'willingness' to be liked and valued members of a language community. Moreover, a willingness in second language acquisition is very essential both in language learning and in motivation (MacIntyre & Blackie, 2012). It also concerns learners' willingness to be identified as the member of their target language group. On the other hand, instrumental motivation is a desire to learn a language to fulfil utilitarian goals e.g., to obtain a job or pass an examination. Ushioda (2013) referred to instrumental motivation as a pragmatic benefit-oriented motivation, and integrative as a social-oriented desire to interact. Ushioda also noted that integrative motivation is more associated with second language learning contexts, while instrumental motivation is more typical in foreign language learning. The same author noted that motivation became even more problematic because of the increasing diversity and complexity of the ELT landscape. For example, in postcolonial countries, such as Singapore, India and Malaysia, instrumental motivation is dominant.

It is evident that most authors accept that integrative motivation correlates with successfull second or foreign language acquisition. However, the level of integratedness might change over time. However, Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) disapproved of this arguing that both integrative and instrumental motivation facilitated learning; a view supported by Brown (2000) for non-native language learning. Kenning (2007) did not recognise a clear the distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation and stated that motivation is not stable. Thus, the type of motivation does not contribute to the improvement of language acquisition. It is the strength, not type of motivation that leads to improved language acquisition. However, neither Brown nor Kenning investigated the effect of technology on motivation when learning a language. Research is needed to determine if and of how students with different types of motivation benefit through the use of technology and also to understand if the introduction of technology brings about new types of motivation.

Whether technology can trigger the development of another type of motivation is investigated in the work reported here. A prediction that this may be so was made by

Mahmoodi, Kalantari, and Ghaslani (2014) who suggested that that new motivational knowledge and beliefs may influence engagement in task performance. With an expectation that technology would improve motivation, they conducted a quantitative study on 130 EFL learners' responses to motivation, and Self-Regulated Learning (SRL) based on a questionnaire. However, their research was only survey-based without integrating technology elements. The same authors also highlighted gaps in knowledge for further explorations, some of which I take up in the design of this thesis.

Ellis (2015) concluded that there was no direct effect from integrative motivation toward second or foreign language achievement. He noted a 1977 study by Oller, Bacca and Vigil in 1977 on Mexican Women living in California who had negative impressions of the English speakers. Despite this, they themselves successfully acquired English. In contrast, Ushioda (2013) recorded that students were in general willing and positively influenced to learn global English. However, global English issues did not really affect the specific motivation for the learning in local contexts. These two contrasting examples spark doubts. Does grouping motivation into its types, finding other types of motivation, or finding out whether motivation affects the foreign language learning at the current learning situation, bridge gaps in finding a solution?

There have been many studies on the influence of attitudes and motivation toward achievement in second or foreign language learning (Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001a; Fernandez & Gunashekar, 2009; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Gass & Selinker, 2001). Most have explored types of motivation. Gardner (2010) claimed that second language school learners required motivation to learn the language and defined motivation as the reason the learners improve their performance. Gardner also argued that it was not only about integrative and instrumental motivation and introduced a socio-educational model of second language acquisition. This consists of the desire to learn the language, attitudes toward learning the language, and motivational intensity.

Gardner's concept (2010) relates to two aspects of motivation, namely, language learning and language classroom motivation. Language-learning motivation is the focus of the socio-educational model and deals with the individual differences which contribute to success. This is much less similar to integrative motivation which is a willingness to be part of culture that drives the learning. Integrated motivation is seen as the cause of individual differences in perceiving a language and results in differences in motivation to learn the language. Gardner's view is limited to the importance of cultural

identity and the learners' view of the cultural groups whose language they are learning. This thesis addresses English for specific purposes which is more bound to the learners' desire to be part of a chosen professional field. It is separated from the concept of cultural identity.

The second concept that Gardner (2010) introduced was language classroom motivation. It is divided into the classroom environment, the nature of both the course and the curriculum, the characteristics of the teachers, and the nature of the students.

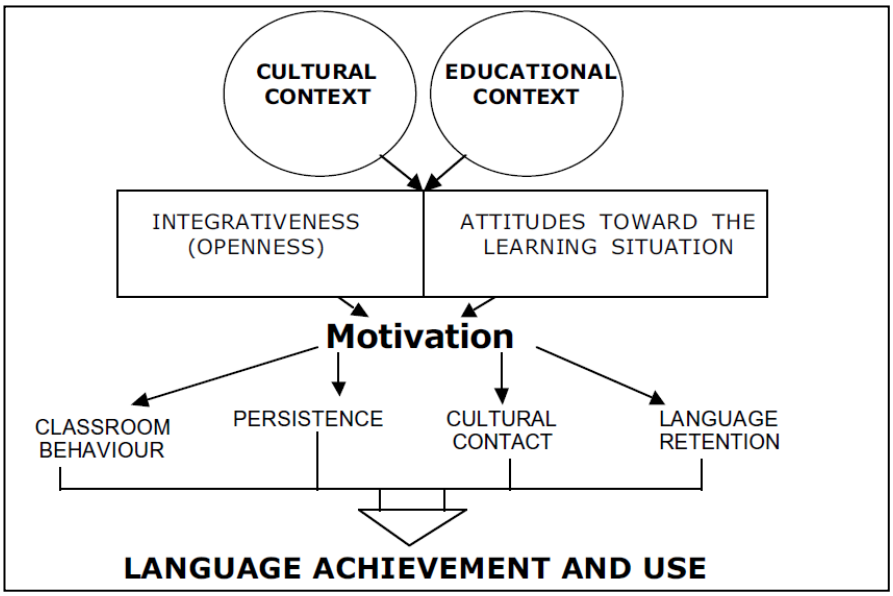

Figure 2.4 A model indicating the effects of the cultural and educational contexts on motivation in second language learning by Gardner (2007)

A model indicating the Effects of the Cultural and Educational Contexts on Motivation in Second Language Learning by Gardner (2007) is given in Figure 2.4. It is evident that integrated motivation to learn a foreign language can be developed by cultural and educational contexts. These two contexts form the openness toward the target language and can be observed through the attitude toward the learning situation. This motivation will then in turn be observable in the students' classroom behaviour, persistence in learning, cultural contact, and language retention.

In her paper on motivation and autonomy, Ushioda (2011) highlighted how the study of motivation has shifted from achievement to identity-related motivation. Furthermore, Ushioda described how students are driven by goal-directed behaviours and the identities they pursue; the activities that students value and engage in and the social groups they want to identify with; what they do and the kind of person they see themselves as or wish to be. Similar points were addressed by Gardner (2010) according

to whom achievement does not indicate how much of the language the learners know; it is simply an indicator of how well they are doing the learning.

2.5.3 Gaps identified from the definitions and types of motivation

Several theories on motivation in language learning have been explored and it is evident that there are gaps in the literature relating to the definitions and types of motivation. Overall, I argue that motivation is best understood as a complex and dynamic process.

I have also argued that Young's definition (Young, 1961, p.6), which mentions motivation as "purpose, intent, aim, goal, and decision," is the starting point for an action. The five words do not imply what is going on after the setting has been determined. It lacks consideration of the in-between states during the learning process. If something changes, will it still be considered as motivation? The steps that a student goes through might influence the process and the type of motivation. If Young's definition is accepted as central to motivation, then having motivation is not very crucial in the language learning process. Young also drew a distinction between motives and habits. By developing good habits, students can reach their goals guided by teachers during their initial stages of language learning. This may gradually lead to independent learning as they establish greater motivation. In such a case, any distinction between habits and motives do not really matter. However, defining motivation as a process does make a difference. Motivation has to be seen as a *dynamic* state (Barba *et al*., 2016). Most research has observed motivational changes in educational settings over period of three to five years (Müller & Palekčić, 2006). Young's definition ignores the dynamic and process-oriented element of motivation.

A second gap identified from the review of the literature relates to motivation, seen either as instrumental/extrinsic or integrative/intrinsic. However, motivation to learn a new language might not solely be either instrumental or integrated but a combination dependent on the unique context. Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017), for example, acknowledged that in mixing between the use of local languages, the national language, loan words, and code-switching with English occur. This current study identifies the types of motivation in foreign language learning in Indonesia: instrumental, integrative or a combination. The level of motivation that influences performance is examined emphasising the dynamic aspect of motivation. Also examined was the questions of whether learners who reported having low levels of

motivation perform well in their studies? And does the introduction of technology-mediated TBLT improve their performance?

In their study of writing skills in the ESP context, Fernandez and Gunashekar (2009) discovered a strong relationship between students' motivation and their needs. They referred to needs as, "real and thought-mediated and are fulfilled through activities", while, "motivation is the leading force to fulfil the task and reach the objectives" (p. 146). These authors introduced socio-psycholinguistics as part of diagnostic testing in ESP writing skill formation. They also identified four types of motivation: instrumental intrinsic, instrumental extrinsic, integrative intrinsic, and integrative extrinsic.

2.5.4 Motivational stages

This subsection focusses on exploring motivational stages which is considered in line with the idea of task phases in the TBLT approach to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), including Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). In order to see whether another type of motivation exists due to the contact with technology in learning, an explanation on these stages will be helpful to guide the analysis.

The stages in motivation development are referred to as chronological stages by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) as the pre-actional, the actional, and the post-actional. In the first stage learners begin their second or foreign language learning effort and create goals for themselves. It is also referred to as setting goals, forming intentions, and launching action. This pre-actional phase is the stage in which the main motivational influences are formed, the period when the values associated with language learning, attitudes towards the second language-speaking community, learners' expectations and beliefs of the students are formed, and the environmental supports are developed.

The actional stage includes sustaining the learners' level of motivation throughout the language-learning process. It involves generating and carrying out subtasks, appraising learners' achievement, and self-regulation. The quality of the language learning experience, sense of autonomy, teachers' and parents' influence, and use of self-regulatory strategies need to be examined and supported to enhanced motivation.

The post-actional stage is one of retrospection and self-reflection on the language learning experience and outcomes. This is the stage when forming causal attributions, elaborating standards and strategies, and dismissing the intention and further planning are entailed. During this stage, the major motivational influences expected to develop are the learners' attributional styles and biases, self-concept beliefs, and received feedback during the second and foreign language learning process. This period reflects the same concept of three task cycle as described in Section 2.2.2 (A Framework for the Implementation of TBLT).

Another point to be taken into consideration is that language-learning contexts vary; the language is learnt as a second, a foreign or as a world-language. These three contexts are not the same. This was acknowledged by Dörnyei, Henry, and Muir (2016) and called Directed Motivational Current (DMC). Students do not learn a language for the feeling of excitement only because they are directed to do so. The series of tasks they perform are not necessarily enjoyable in, and of, themselves and the students are involved in a prolonged process of engagement. The motivation that they have, often limited, is named DMC and useful to understand learning at the vocational higher education level. As this is not integrative motivation, learners can be guided to engage in task-based instructed learning through the use of internet technology.

2.5.5 Attribution theory of motivation

Attribution was mentioned as one of the major motivational influences when learning an L2 (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998). This study explored the research context by applying attributional theory. *Attribution* is "the action of regarding something as being caused by a person or thing" (Attribution, n.d). Schunk (Schunk, 1992) referred to attribution as "perceived causes of outcomes" and listed factors that contribute to success and failure. Those that students identified were ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck.

Ames and Ames (1984) highlighted the role of ability and effort which they referred to as *attribution*, and which "may inhibit or enhanced motivation, depending on situational context" (p. 5). They also mentioned that this role is observable from proactivity and intentional actions. The determinants of success or failure are ability (aptitude and learned skills), motivation (long or short-term effort expenditure, attention), others (friends and family), physiological factors (mood, maturity, health, etc.), the difficulty or ease of the task, and luck.

The attributional theory of motivation and emotion from Ames and Ames (1984) represents the situation of students' effort that contributes to their success in learning. It can be understood that having a lack of effort will result in guilt. In particular, Weiner (1984) mentioned that ability (aptitude and learned skills), motivation (long or short-term effort expenditure, attention), others (friends and family), physiological factors (mood, maturity, health, etc.), the difficulty, or ease of the task, and luck are the determinants for success and failure in achievement situations. As can be seen in Figure 2.5, Weiner also mentioned how the attribution theory of motivation and emotion, which includes the causal dimensions, causal antecedents, and causal consequences, determine success or failure.

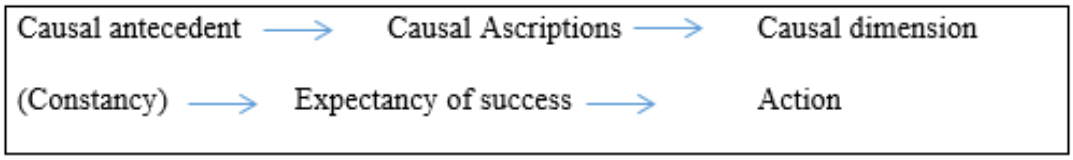

Figure 2.5 Attribution Theory by Nicholls (1984)

The series of causes that motivate a person to complete an action is shown in Figure 2.5. This summary, according to Nicholls (1984), is common-sense reasoning about the causes of success and failure related to tasks. Nicholls criticised Weiner's concept and believed that there is a relationship between ability and effort attribution and linked the concept of ability, task-involvement and task difficulty.

Schunk *et al*., (2008) identified two types of activities that can be observed throughout the learning process which determine attainment: physical and mental activities. Physical activities include effort, persistence, and other overt actions. Mental activities are cognitive actions such as planning, rehearsing, organising, monitoring, making decisions, solving problems, and assessing progress.

Factors that contribute to demotivation also need to be explored. Falout, Elwood, and Hood (2009) surveyed 900 university English as a foreign language (EFL) learners to find out the demotivating factors in learning EFL in Japan and examined the relationship between earlier demotivating experiences and their current proficiency. They also compared affective states and capacity to self-regulate learning with academic interests, experiences, and proficiencies. The demotivating factors were grouped into three categories: external conditions of the learning environment, internal conditions of the learner, and reactive behaviours to demotivating experiences. Their result also showed that internal and reactive factors correlated with long-term EFL

learning outcomes. Findings indicated that beginning, less-proficient learners who were non-English majors were least likely to control their affective states to cope with demotivating experiences.

Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) conducted a similar study on 656 Japanese high school students. They found five demotivation factors: a) poor learning content and materials, b) teachers' lack of competence and inappropriate teaching styles, c) inadequate school facilities, d) lack of intrinsic motivation, and e) low test scores. Poor learning content and materials and low-test scores were particularly demotivating, especially for less motivated learners. These results contradicted previous research results in that teachers' competence and teaching styles were not found to be strongly demotivating for either the more or the less motivated groups of students. Inadequate school facilities were also not seen as demotivating factors.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) felt that researchers agreed on both *instructional context* (e.g., task and material design, evaluation practices, and grouping structures), and *social and cultural influences* (teacher, peer group, school, family, culture, and society) that influenced motivation. Quadir (2017) found that at tertiary educational level in Bangladesh, teachers, past experiences of the students, private tutors, the attitude of group members, school facilities, textbooks, and students' and their family members' attitude towards English study all affected motivation. Most significantly in this context, teachers and students' past experiences were the most affective factors.

Roni, Inderawati, and Hakim (2017) in their study on Indonesian students using TBLT and conventional teaching techniques in writing instruction found a significant difference in students' writing achievement that both high and low motivated students gained an advantage from TBLT approaches in narrative writing both before and after TBLT technique implementation. TBLT approaches have been found to be useful in improving the writing ability. However, the author did not study the effect of motivation on the success of TBLT teaching.

Theories of motivation have been reviewed in this section. It has highlighted that motivation is a dynamic state that changes throughout the learning stage. In general, motivation is divided into two types: intrinsic and extrinsic, and in the field of language learning motivation, they are known as integrative and instrumental motivation. After reviewing the literature, it was evident that a gap was identified as a third type of foreign language learning motivation exists as some students combine both types of

motivation. Motivation to learn a language is also known as a state that develops through three stages: pre-actional stage, the actional stage, and the post-actional during which attribution styles play important roles. The next section explores the learning strategy in the learning of writing skills which is the focus of this thesis.

2.5.6 Learning strategy

This study investigates language-learning strategies in the specific context of learning writing skills, a gap in knowledge identified by the literature review that this study attempts to contribute to. The most referred to language learning strategies was Oxford's taxonomy. According to Oxford (1990, p.8), learning strategies are "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p.8). However, there were no fixed definitions of learning strategies. In response to the on-going disputes relating to defining the concept, Dörnyei (2005) identified a lack of definitional and conceptual agreement about its key terms. Griffiths and Oxford (2014) also highlighted disagreement about the categorisation of language learning strategies.

According to Griffiths and Oxford (2014), eight references categorise language learning strategies:

- Rubin in 1981: direct and indirect.
- O'Malley *et al*. in 1985: a tripartite classification system (cognitive, metacognitive, and social).
- Oxford in 1990: developed Rubin's direct/indirect dichotomy Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) of six categories (Oxford, 1990): memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social.
- Pintrich and Garcia in 1991 who referred to three strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, and resource management.
- Purpura in 1999 reintroduced the tripartite model by different names: comprehension, storage.
- Yang in 1999: a six-factor model (functional practice, cognitive-memory, metacognitive, formal-oral, social, and compensation).
- Schmidt and Watanabe in 2001: four factors (cognitive, social, study, and coping).
- Cohen, Oxford, and Chi in 2001 categorised Language Strategy Use Inventory according to skills (Cohen, Oxford & Chi, 2001).

Oxford (1990) divided the learning strategies into two: the direct and indirect categories. The direct strategies were then divided into three strategies: memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Oxford (2011) then eliminated overlap and named four language learning strategies: cognitive, affective, sociocultural-interactive, and the master category “metastrategies,” which included, but was not limited to, metacognitive strategies.

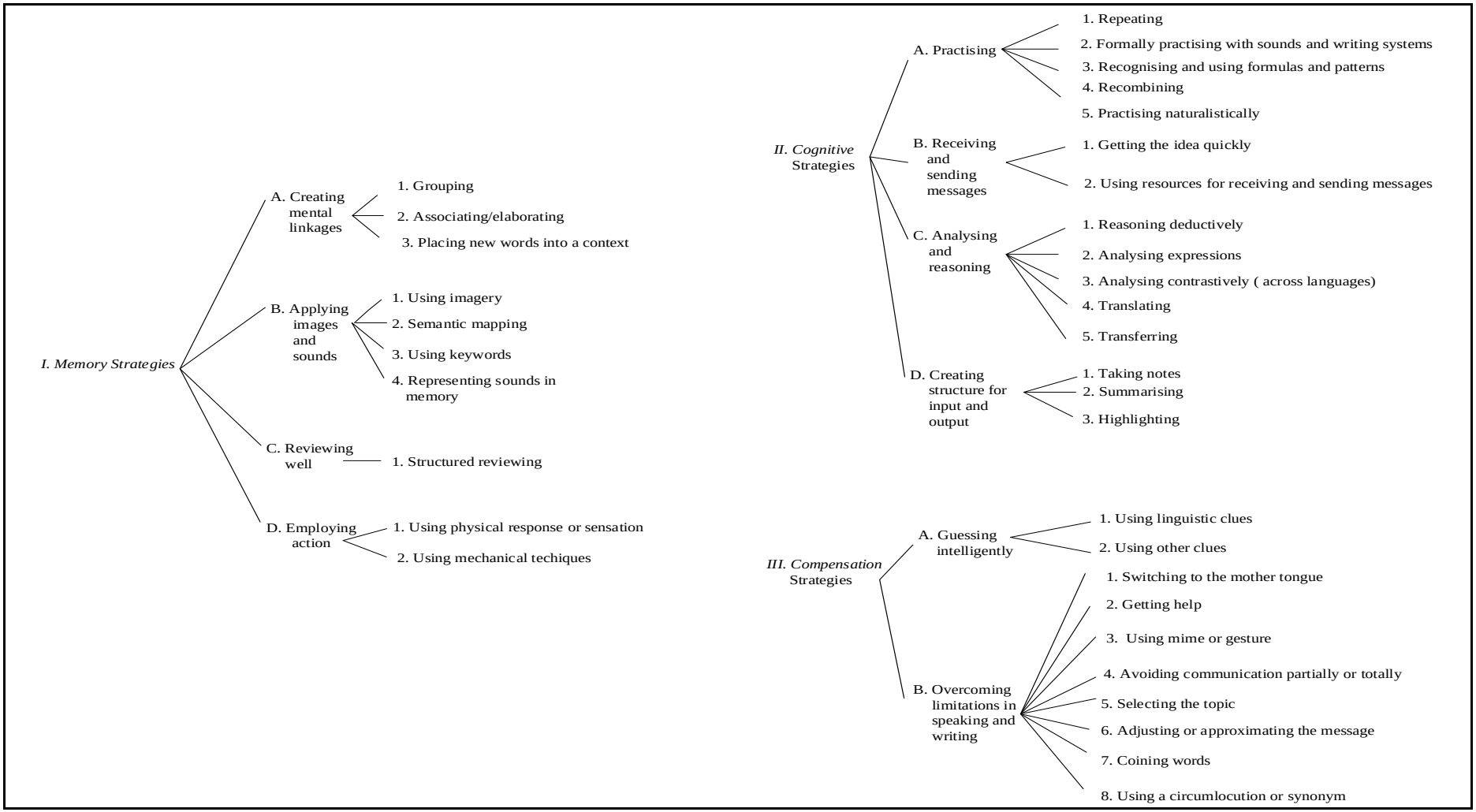

Figure 2.6 Direct Strategies (Oxford, 1990)

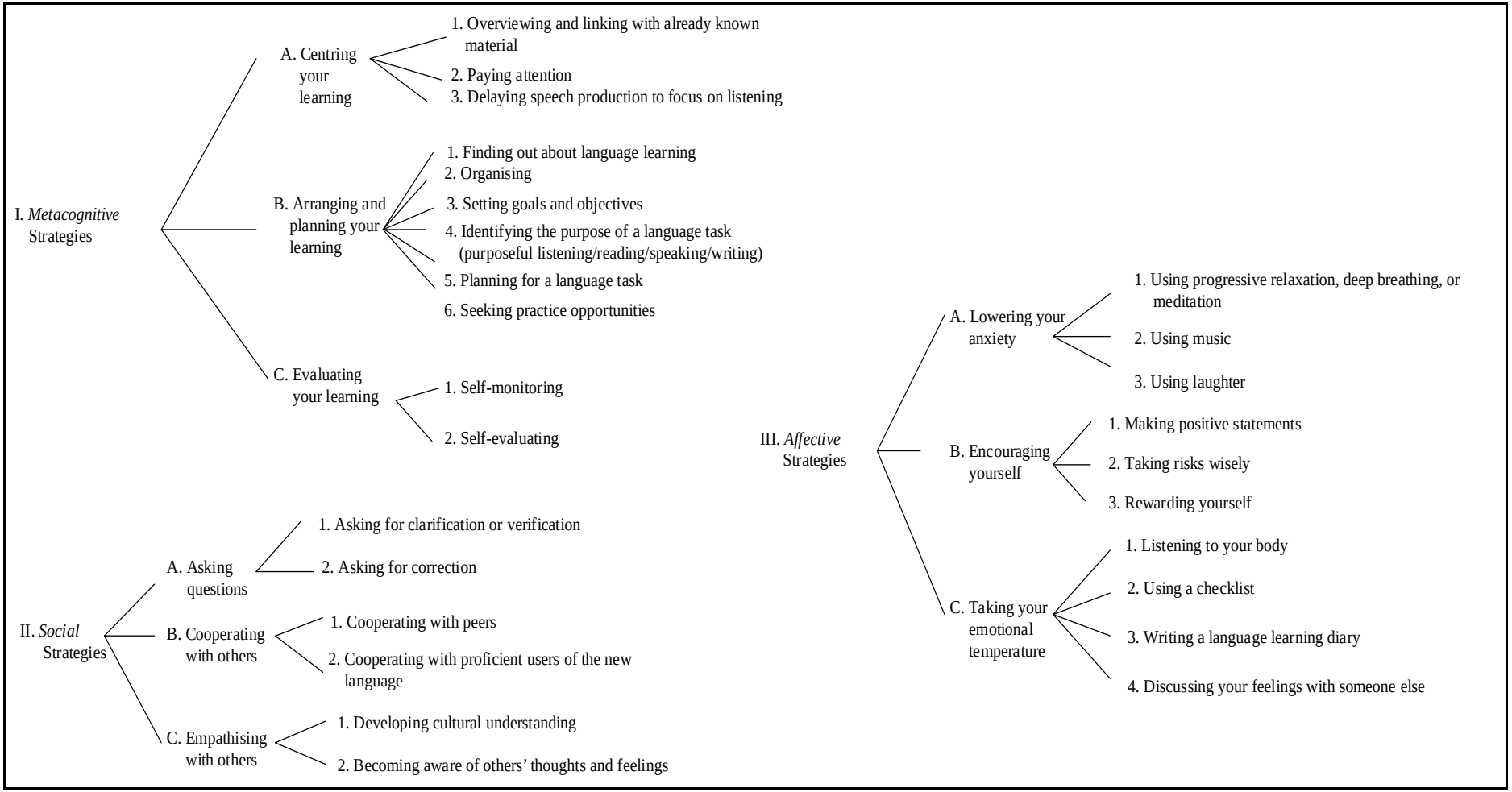

Figure 2.7 Indirect Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990)

The direct and indirect learning sturategies are summaried in both Figure 2.6. and 2.7.

According to Sato and Loewen (2018), metacognition is the ability to actively monitor one's learning and enhances a student's ability to regulate the learning process. Teng and Zhang (2016) found a strategy called self-regulated learning strategies and reported nine EFL writing strategies correlated with self-regulated learning. It was recorded that goal-oriented monitoring and evaluating strategies had the strongest correlation with peer learning of the social dimension and interest enhancement of the motivational regulation dimension. Tang and Zhang (2016) also claimed that awareness about realising and monitoring their task goals might activate students' effort to regulate their social behaviour and intrinsic motivation and thus maintain or increase their engagement with tasks.

2.5.6.1 Learning strategies for developing writing skills

The metacognitive strategies proposed by Oxford (1990) were the most used to writing skills (Chraif, Vasile, Anitei, & Henter, 2014; Furwana, 2017; Kyle, Kujala, Richardson, Lyytinen, & Goswami, 2013; Sato & Loewen, 2018; Van Gelderen *et al*., 2004; Wenden, 1999).

Writing was considered the most challenging language skill and the most difficult to develop (2016). These studies were observed self-regulated strategies among Chinese English learners. Lei's research (2008) was conducted on two proficient Chinese students studying English writing at a well-established Chinese university. He concluded from the results of interviews, stimulated recall, and process logs completed that the learners used four strategies, artefact-mediated, rule-mediated, community-mediated, and role-mediated strategies, in their writing processes with diverse resources (see Figure 2.8).

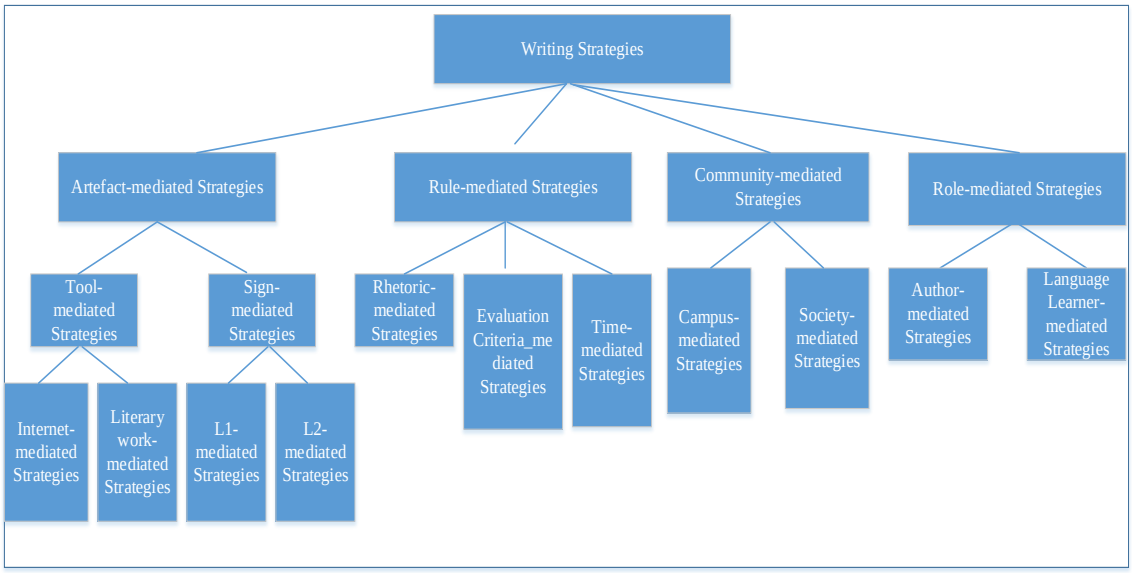

Figure 2.8 Writing Strategies (Lei, 2008)

Figure 2.8 summaries the findings on writing strategies conducted by Lei (2008):

1. Artefact-mediated strategies refer to the technical aspects of the writing process. They involve the tools and the language that the students used to produce their pieces of writing.
2. Rule-mediated strategies are subdivided into rhetoric-mediated, evaluation criteria-mediated, and time-mediated strategies. They dealt with the way the students develop logic in their writing, the criteria they used in their writing, and the time allocated to complete their writing.
3. Community-mediated strategies were centred around two communities of practice: the campus-mediated and society-mediated strategies:
    a. In campus-mediated strategies students targeted their writing to accomplish the matching one of the main lecturer's expectations.
    b. Society-mediated strategies referred to outside of campus media for the students' writing which enabled the public to access their writing, such as on a blog.
4. Role-mediated strategies referred to the way the students positioned themselves in their writing script, and which viewpoint they were using logic in their writing, either as an author or as a learner of the language who tried to master the language. If the students opted to be the authors of the writing, they had to be as fluent and accurate as the native English writers were.

The context of the research in this thesis is different from Lei's (2008). I assumed that the strategies used by proficient English learners would be more observable than those

used by non-proficient and non-motivated learners. Moreover, the students in my study were not under the pressure of module scoring. They joined the research voluntarily outside the university curriculum. Taking this into consideration, the current study is original in terms of the nature of its participants and the authentic nature of the writing skills.

According to Scarcella and Oxford (1992, p.63), “specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task [are] used by students to enhance their own learning”. De Smet, Brand-Gruwel, Leijten, and Kirschner (2014) reported electronic outlining as an effective writing strategy for improving students’ writing performance. Their study was based on 93 tenth grader students in the Netherlands. Argumentative writing was performed by making repeated electronic outlines. These students went through the planning, translating, and reviewing as a writing process for the organisation of the arguments. Their findings showed that the outlining process was effective for improving the students’ argumentative structure. Moreover, they confirmed that outlining improved the students’ writing fluency. However, the study did not investigate the student’s accuracy.

Many studies on learning strategies have been conducted on self-regulated strategies (Alnufaie & Grenfell, 2012; Barber, Bagsby, Grawitch, & Buerck, 2011; Lam, R., 2015; MacIntyre & Blackie, 2012; Mahmoodi *et al*., 2014; Mak & Wong, 2017; McEown, Noels, & Saumure, 2014; Mukti, 2017; Phuong *et al*., 2015; Ryan, Connell, & Deci, 1985; Zheng, Liang, Li, & Tsai, 2018). All show that if students are to perform well in writing classes, they need to be self-driven to learn.

This section has reviewed the literature on learning motivation. Even though language learning motivation tended to be studied in correlation with the self-regulated learning, self-regulation is not covered in this current study.

2.5.7 Research on motivation in Indonesia

Research on EFL in Indonesian higher education is limited and most studies on TBLT have been conducted on speaking skills at the school level. A literature search on language learning motivation was made through e-resources at the Indonesian national library (http://e-resources.perpusnas.go.id). The keywords used were of “language learning motivation” and “English” in peer-reviewed journals in the fields of education, languages and literature, and journalism and communication. 397 articles were found

dated from January 1975 to July 2016. Most were published in 2010 (46 titles). However, they were non-Indonesian-based studies, such as Mostafa Papi who was an Iranian author (Papi & Teimouri, 2014) and Martin Lamb (Lamb, 2004a, 2004b, 2007, 2012, 2013; Lamb & Budiyanto, 2013).

A limited number of articles were found on EFL motivation in Indonesian among junior high school students conducted (Lamb 2004a, 2004b, 2007). In this twenty-month study, Lamb (2007) found that the students' instrumental motivation increased slightly, which was in contrast to their integrative motivation. Lamb concluded that the process of learning in classrooms significantly affected students' motivational thinking; classroom-related variables were more susceptible to change than the general variables such as instrumental and integrative motivation. Moreover, only seven articles in peer-reviewed journals were found with the same keywords search in the EBSCO database dated from January 2016 to July 2019 and no article covered writing skills.

Classroom-related variables emerge as the most important aspects of learning. It is not related to what the learners want, but it is more about how the process builds up their motivation to learn. In other words, the current situation in the learning process is more a matter than the starting and ending point of the learning. It is not about the outcome. The process is very central. Motivation, therefore, should be built from within; within the classroom context and the activities that drive the learning. In addition, Lamb also reported that low motivation resulted from monotonous classroom procedures, incomprehensible lessons, and the fear of reprimand. However, stable motivation was due to a self-identification process, which was encouraged by the sociocultural background and economic situations. Lamb assumed that in rural areas where people had less contact with globalisation, they might experience a weaker identification process with English and negative language learning experiences at school, which influenced their motivation to learn English.

Research on language learning motivation in the Indonesian context was limited to the study on the school level. Mattarima and Hamdan (2011, 2016) in their studies on learner-centred teaching in the Indonesian school curriculum found that motivation constraints and poor language learning strategies were the biggest challenges in the application of learner-centred activities in the Indonesian schooling systems. They also recognised that high motivation to learn languages is crucial for the success of language acquisition.

Panggabean (2007) concluded that low English proficiency resulted from a lack of motivation among Indonesian learners caused by their misconceptions about English and problems with the teaching approach. Panggabean suggested that teachers use multimedia (television, radio, and the internet) to motivate their students.

In their study of 430 Science Department students at the Faculty of Teaching and Education, University of Lampung, Indonesia, Yufrizal, Sudirman, and Hasan (2016) reported that motivation did not affect English proficiency but that learning styles significantly influenced the English achievement.

As mentioned earlier, utilising technology in teaching EFL in Indonesia has been suggested. Therefore, the next section of this literature review will explore the use of technology to motivate learning.

2.6 Technology-Mediated learning

Turning now to the use of technology-mediated learning. Another significant aspect of this study is the utilisation of computer and internet technology. This section begins by defining the terms Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and its development, the relationship between CALL and motivation, as well as CALL and teaching writing in an EFL context.

2.6.1 Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

To begin with, a mutual relationship between internet connectivity and English proficiency was reported in the Education First report (Education First, 2017). This indicates that the use of internet technology for foreign language learning may be beneficial. Kenning (2007), for example, considered that the advance of Information Communication Technology (ICT) and globalisation may build instrumental motivation (i.e., a practical reason for getting a job) and benefit language learners. Technology, methodology and theories interact in the process of language acquisition and language use.

Technology in language learning encourages fresh thinking about language learning pedagogies. Kenning used chatrooms and virtual reality games as examples that enable language acquisition in its authentic context. In relation to instrumental motivation, Kenning also observed that the reason why people said that they wished to learn foreign languages has changed. In the digital age they were now more willing to

travel and talk to native speakers of English directly and through the internet. According to Kenning, this has been caused by "exposure to and communication in" digital technology (p.159). Kenning's statement about exposure can be understood to mean that learning a language is not just about second or foreign languages. It is about the issue of English as a world language. This theme has been further explored in the Section 2.5.

The umbrella terms technology-mediated learning (TML) or computer-assisted language learning (CALL) includes variations. The concept of technology and English language learning derives from the development of CALL. It was swiftly replaced by Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL), technology-enhanced language learning (TELL), and technology-mediated language learning (TML). There are in fact many terms referring to this type of technology-mediated learning in CALL research (Gruba, 2004).

Lian (2004), for example, introduced the development of a Technology-Enhanced foreign/second Language Learning (TELL) framework and some aspects of its implementation. Lian then developed TELL where the focus is on learning to raise students' awareness to acquire the language, not the technology. He proposed an operational space for action that suggests the use of a project-based or task-based framework. Therefore, Lian designed TELL-based teaching to teach listening and speaking in a way that avoided drilling, answering pre-determined questions, and dictionary use. He focused on activating learners' explorative activities with certain texts.

Gleason and Suvorov (2012) considered that TELL does not have a significant effect on oral communication, but is an effective way to engage students in learning the speaking skills in foreign language learning. It helped interaction and meaning negotiation between the students. This study investigated students' perception thus a detailed analysis of the success of the technological effect on learning outcomes was not explored.

The phrase Technology-Mediated Learning (TML) is regarded as an 'umbrella' term in some respects but is rarely used in the literature. Preferred terms for the different approaches to the use of computers in the pedagogical context of learning and teaching, are computer-aided/assisted learning (CALL) or computer-mediated communication (CMC). They also refer to generic computer-based production and presentation tools and computer-supported research tools. These tools are increasingly associated with

Managed Learning Environments (MLEs). Gonzales-Lloret and Ortega (2014a, 2014b) and Thomas and Peterson (2014) defined an environment in which students can access resources, carry out drills, consult other students and tutors, and access research and assessment tools.

In the South East Asian context, TELL and CALL are used to refer to technology-mediated language learning. iTELL (Indonesian Technology-Enhanced Language Learning) was established in 2014, and AsiaCALL which was established in 2013, tend to use these terms more often. Of the different terms used to refer to the use of the internet and digital technologies in language learning, technology-mediated learning is used in this current study as this is the term that most accurately represents the function of technology to mediate language learning.

2.6.2 Technology and motivation

The introduction of technology in learning may be expected to motivate language learners of a 'technology-dependent generation'. However, in my experience the expected language improvement remains dependant on the students' wishes to and willingness to learn. A noted by Bodnar, Cucchiarini, Strik, and Hout, (2016), 1) dynamic variables of motivation have not yet been explored by CALL researchers, 2) there has no exploration of behavioural practice, and 3) learners' individual interests and goals have not been investigated satisfactorily.

I address the first of these points mentioned above in this thesis, namely, that motivation is dynamic. The question is thus best to develop teaching methods to maintain and enhance motivation rather than exploring types of motivation that affect the success of the learning.

There has been little work on motivation as it relates to Asian students learning English in the vocational higher education level. Carrió-Pastor and Mestre (2014) postulated that introducing technology would stimulate motivation. To test their theory, they conducted a qualitative study on two groups of polytechnic students studying General English (GE) from Geometrics, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in Electrical Engineering and Topography as additional subjects. Students were then allocated at random into groups. The results were assessed by questionnaire to measure integrative and instrumental motivation. Group A was taught using repetitive exercises and performed an identical task regardless of the topics. Group B planned their own learning and decided what to do or emphasise in each lesson. Teachers gave assistance

to customise the learning materials according to the students' individual needs, abilities, or experiences and the context in which they were expected to be used. Group B was also allowed to adapt the learning material to their language level and repeat exercises if needed.

Carrió-Pastor and Mestre found that those students who supported the integrative approach were usually motivated to learn the language and, overall, more successful in language learning. The students whose questionnaires' results had shown them to have instrumental motivation were more interested in communicating in but not learning the target language. The researchers concluded that the students with instrumental motivation did not have the opportunity to use English to communicate collaboratively. Opposed to this group, the students with integrative motivation interacted with their peers and communicated with native English speakers on the Internet.

Carrió-Pastor and Mestre's study (2014) has many major weaknesses. First, the ESP teaching materials did not facilitate communicative collaboration and the students were given no meaningful opportunity to interact with fluent language users. They only performed and repeated the tasks. A second weakness was that the teaching materials and the tasks assigned to the two classes were different; a true comparison of outcomes is thus impossible.

Kenning (2007) noted that improvements in ICT and increasing globalisation promoted both students' instrumental motivation and their ability to learn a foreign language. She concluded that technology promoted fresh thinking and used chatrooms and virtual reality game enabled language acquisition in authentic contexts. In instrumental motivation, Kenning also saw that there were changes in why learners wanted to learn a foreign language. There was a willingness to travel and talk to native speakers and to interact through the technology and the internet.

Shabudin, Aisyah, Darus, and Mimiko (2014) studied the use of Web 2.0 programs to develop teaching materials (e.g., JING, Screencast.com, YouTube, Online Nihongo website, and WordPress). They found that students learning Japanese and using these applications were more motivated, enthusiastic, excited and gained higher scores than those that did not. However, Akbari, Pilot, and Robert-Jan Simons (2015) found no difference in practice between a group of students who learnt English through Facebook with a face-to-face group on autonomy, competence, and relatedness in

foreign language learning. However, they found relatedness was the strongest predictor of the difference in learning outcomes, as well as competence.

These findings support the view of Gardner (2010) that achievement is not the only way to measure the language learning success. This current study estimates that improved motivation can also be an indicator for successful language learning. However, it needs exploration. Despite that, the application of TBLT may not always produce enjoyable, motivating and engaging tasks in classroom interaction, although Blake (2016) argues that implementing TBLT frameworks in conjunction with technology-mediated learning for teaching the four language skills may be effective.

Hussein (2011) in his study of the attitudes of 700 undergraduate students towards motivation and technology in a foreign language classroom concluded that students struggled to accept the introduction of technology into their learning. Despite this, Hussein acknowledged that technology played an important role in education. He indicated that teachers be given more training on the introduction of technology to the classroom. The improved teaching method would in turn improve the students' familiarity with and thus enjoyment of using the range of available technologies.

Sharadgah (2013) found that the use of internet-based instruction helped Saudi university students developed their English writing skills. He compared experimental (internet-based learning) and control (pen/pencil-based learning) groups and reported that internet-based writing activities improved learners' motivation and writing performance. Four reasons for this improvement were identified: 1) the instructional method was motivational for the learners, 2) the program encouraged students to use the reading-writing strategy, 3) it placed students in a new learning context that required them to work in a collaborative learning environment which also increased their autonomous learning, and 4) the program allowed students to write in a low-stress environment that encouraged them to communicate in English without being worried about making mistakes.

2.6.3 Technology as a learning tool in writing classes

This part focuses more on the use of technology for developing productive skills in writing classes. The Internet is one of the most visible and useful tools to develop English writing skills in the classroom. Cahyono, Mukminatien, and Amrina (2016) rated the ability of Indonesian students to write English at the intermediate level. Although they studied only a small sample of 54 students at an English Department in

East Java. However, Husin and Nurbayani (2017) only rated as low because of the effect of the students' inability to develop adequate paragraphs in English.

The use of internet technology is today ubiquitous in students' life. Several studies had examined its use as a tool for learning English (Hong, Ridzuan, & Kuek, 2003; Lee, Cheung, & Chen, 2005; Lee, Lee, & Hwang, 2015; Wu, Huang, & Hwang, 2016). In Indonesia, there is no evidence of internet-mediated tools being used by students to complete their writing tasks, although the use of other technologies was evident. Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, and Freynik (2014) reviewed 350 studies from 37 countries that used low-level technology to learn English highlighted nine sources for mediating learning:

1) Stand-alone PCs with an overhead projector
2) CD-ROMs
3) Whiteboards
4) Email
5) DVDs
6) Computer laboratories
7) The Blackboard VLE (Virtual Learning Environment)
8) Mobile phones
9) Web 2.0 applications. (Gonzales & St Louis, 2013)

Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, and Freynik (2014) reviewed the effectiveness of four tools for language learning: 1) schoolhouse-or classroom-based technologies, 2) individual study tools, 3) network-based social computing, and 4) mobile and portable devices.

- Course Management System (CMS), Interactive whiteboards, e-portfolio are amongst the first category.
- Corpus tools, electronic dictionaries, electronic glosses or annotation tools, intelligent tutoring systems, grammar checkers, automatic speech recognition (ASR) and pronunciation programs are grouped into the second type of technologies.
- Network-based social computing refers to the use of a virtual world or serious game, text chat application, social networking application, blog, internet forum or message board, and wikis.

- Tablet PCs or PDAs, iPods, and cell phones or smartphones. All four groups enhanced learners' output and interaction, and affected and motivation, feedback, and metalinguistic knowledge (see Table 2.4).

Table 2.4 The use of tools in low-tech context (Gonzales & St Louis, 2013, p.229)

Resource	Ways in which it is used
Stand-alone PC with an overhead projector	• To use with PowerPoint Presentation (PPT) to introduce new topics, and explained grammar and vocabulary • To show illustration and images, • To project quizzes
CD-ROM	• To develop listening comprehension in the language laboratory
Whiteboard	• To present and review vocabulary, grammar explanations • To brainstorm ideas
Email	• To communicate with students • To send reading materials • To send and receive students assignments
DVD Computer lab	• To develop listening and speaking skills • To play interactive games to develop grammar, vocabulary and reading • To write in wikis and blogs • To do various tasks using the internet • To use licensed audio-visual resources to develop language skills
Blackboard	• To teach vocabulary and syntax • To explain grammar
Mobile phones	• To make announcements • To keep in touch with students • To complete class activities (e.g., look up unknown vocabulary on android phones)
Web 2.0 (such as blogs, wikis, and podcasts).	• Wikis and blogs • To post lessons and assignments • To do collaborative work • Podcasts • To practise listening, speaking and pronunciation

Table 2.4 summarises the findings from Gonzales and St. Louis (2013) relating to thirty seven countries (Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Cambodia, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Israel, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, Mexico New Zealand, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Taiwan, Holland, Turkey, UAE, UK, Ukraine,

USA, and Venezuela) about CALL in low-tech contexts. A conclusion to be drawn from these findings is that writing was the lowest ranked skill and only mentioned under the computer laboratory-related resource. There is a big gap in the use of technology to teach writing skills. However, no specific comparison with other research findings can be made, except classifying the tools for the task completions by relating the classification effective technology for foreign language learning by Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, and Freynik, (2014). The TBLT framework for writing skills proposed in this present study is based on the review of Golonka *et al* (2014).

Weigle (2002) found that technology has changed writing styles to be more speech-like. Also, it has changed the way writing is taught and has improved writing skills as in the networked classrooms where students can engage in peer feedback to improve their writing. The introduction of technology into teaching requires support from the policy makers within institutions. Up to now, the use of digital technology is dominated toward the teaching of listening and speaking skills and emphasises vocabulary development and comprehension and was accelerated by the Digital Kitchen Projects by Seedhouse in 2013.

Talebi, Aidinlou, and Farhadi (2015) found that the introduction of technology appreciably improved students' writing skills but much less so their grammar. The activities were task-based and therefore aimed at producing a product. The students, however, focused the task on an information gap in pair activities using the simple present tense, which was contrary to the "authentic material" emphasised by Nunan (2006).

The use of social media for teaching English writing becomes popular, particularly Facebook usage in Asia (Al-Jarf, 2018; Altakhaineh & Al-Jallad, 2018; Dizon, 2016). Similarly, the use of Edmodo in writing classes in Asia was also appreciated positively (Ali, Malek, Abidin, & Razali, 2018; Al-Naibi, Al-Jabri, & Al-Kalbani, 2018; Lam, Y., Hew, & Chiu, 2018; Purnawarman, Susilawati, & Sundayana, 2016; Shams-Abadi, Ahmadi, & Mehrdad, 2015). This research recorded the effectiveness of social media (e.g., Facebook) and educational-based social media (e.g., Edmodo) in English writing classes in Asian countries, such as Malaysia, Indonesia, Taiwan, Hong Kong up to western Asia (e.g., Iran) and Turkey. Traditional teaching in writing classes is not popular because of the integration of technology in students' daily life. However, these studies recorded the effectiveness of Web 2.0 in the writing classes without relating it to a TBLT approach. They only observed the success of Web 2.0 as a

tool in learning English writing skills. The section that follows discusses literature on the collaboration between TBLT, technology-mediated learning, and teaching English writing skills.

2.7 Technology-Mediated TBLT

The results of research into task-based language teaching (TBLT) and Technology-mediated Learning (TML) in Asia, as first discussed in Section 2.3, is expanded here. It is frequently recorded that Asian learners are characterised by their dependency on teachers, and this in turn, affects the success of TBLT and the use of technologies (Thomas, 2013). The dependency is also recorded as leaving them more vulnerable to challenges.

The need to develop curriculum to teach foreign languages that combines traditional methods and teaching implementing the use of Information Technology (IT) was noted by Bedford (1991). The aim was to make the teaching and learning accessible to both instructors and students. This thesis introduces the concept of technology-mediated TBLT as a combination of IT and a teaching method for language learning and is centred on the productive skill of writing.

The marriage between technology and TBLT is not new and both students and teachers are familiar with its use, although the term technology-mediated TBLT is not in wide use yet. Technology-mediated TBLT in this research context deals with the application of technology, in general, to mediate learning in task-based instruction. González-Lloret and Ortega (2014a, 2014b) claimed that such a method enabled students to learn from authentic materials in ways that interested them. While, Lai and Li (2011) invited researches to further develop the field of what they referred to as "technology-enhanced TBLT".

Ellis (2006) claimed that TBLT is psychologically motivating. Thus, teachers must be knowledgeable about the technologies they introduce to their classes (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014a, 2014b; Lai & Li, 2011) and collaborate with each other to handle their classes effectively.

The focus must be on learning the language by raising the students' awareness and not on the technology. Lian and Pineda (2014) suggested the use of a project-based or task-based framework taught in a communal space. Lian and Lian (1996) designed TELL-based teaching to teach listening and speaking that avoids drilling, answering

pre-determined questions, and dictionary use. They focused on activating learners' explorative activities with certain texts. A similar concept is also known as technology-mediated language learning. Both refer to the same concept. However, in this study, the use of technology-mediated language learning is used. The present research is aimed at mediating the development of motivation in ESP related contexts for learners with low proficiency. It does not investigate how best to teach students from intermediate and higher-level proficiency groups.

2.7.1 The Technology-Mediated TBLT framework

Frameworks for technology-mediated TBLT were introduced by Chapelle (2000) and Gonzales-Lloret and Ortega (2014a). Chappelle (2014a, 2014b) then compared the framework that she developed in 2000 with the framework published by Gonzales-Lloret and Ortega (2014a). Chapelle introduced the terms authenticity, meaning focus, learner fit, language learning potential, positive impact, and practicality. Gonzales-Lloret and Ortega (2014a) introduced holism, primary focus on meaning, learner-centeredness, reflective learning, and goal-oriented.

Table 2.5 The technology-mediated TBLT framework

Chapelle (2001)		**Gonzales-Lloret and Ortega (2014)**	**Change**
Authenticity	→ →	Holism	Maintain essentially the same meaning
Meaning focus	→ →	Primary focus on meaning	Shift to the denote *primary* focus on meaning
Learner fit	→ →	Learner-centeredness	Adds dimensions of the need analysis
Language learning potential	→ →	Reflective learning	Shift in meaning to omit focus on language form and add deliberate reflection on progmmatic learning gains
Positive impact	→ →	Reflective learning	Narrow the scope of impact to reflection on learning goals and learning
Practicality	→ →	0	Omits
0	→ →	Goal-orientation	Adds

The changes in the technology-mediated TBLT framework are summarised by Chapelle (2014a) and presented in Table 2.5.

Huang (2010) used Willis's TBLT framework which emphasises grammar when carrying out language tasks. The application of TBLT teaching is thus more on form than on meaning. The present study also uses Willis's TBLT framework but adapts it to the local context as suggested by Ortega (2012) and is vocational based around real-world writing tasks.

Ushioda (2013) reported that integrating content and English presents pedagogical and motivational challenges for both teachers and learners: teachers are not subject, or language specialists and learners' English proficiency is low. Malcolm (2013) agreed with this view. The most motivating teaching activities were in the form of games, pictures, and entertainment. Moreover, tasks which included a larger amount of texts or words were less motivational. Ellis (2003) emphasised that task-based teaching should not be complex, and tasks should be linguistically unfocused to encourage learners to process communication aimed at the acquisition of the L2. "Linguistically unfocused" refers to the implicit way of learning the language through meaning-focused language production. However, at a higher education level, learners need to be exposed to more challenging tasks to develop their receptive and productive skills. This risks the students losing their motivation particularly in the vocational level. The right balance needs to be found.

One adaptation introduces of the use of technology into a TBLT design learning environment. This environment was designed after a review of projects as described in the following section.

2.7.2 Studies on Technology-Mediated TBLT

Two technology-mediated TBLT skill development studies were identified related to respective skills development, listening comprehension and vocabulary building. These studies are the Second Life project by Henderson, Huang, Grant, and Henderson (2009) and the Digital Kitchen projects by Seedhouse *et al.,* (2013, 2014). Seedhouse developed the project for French as a Foreign Language learners, while Henderson, Grant and Henderson developed their project for Chinese learners and focused on measuring learners' self-efficacy. Observing the notion of mixing TBLT and technology-mediated learning, the application of technology-mediated TBLT was centred on receptive skills, namely, listening skills. The Digital Kitchen's projects (Hooper *et al*., 2010; Hooper *et al*., 2012; Preston & Seedhouse, 2013; Preston *et al*., 2015) are examples of a technology-mediated TBLT project. The Digital Kitchen was

designed to teach French as a foreign language to students who were already familiar with the use of digital equipment, in particular with *Satnav*, a driving aid that gives verbal instructions. The authors built a kitchen equipped with digital equipment capable of automatically issuing audio-recorded instructions in French. The students learnt the language by listening to the commands, understanding them and then carrying out the task. These projects are examples of how to react globally to local context as suggested by Ortega. This project and other similar projects based on it are considered to be key examples of glocalized TBLT initiated by Ortega as described in the previous section on TBLT research.

Digital Kitchen and the Second Life projects are global in their approach but readily adaptable in to be 'local' in the context. However, the technology used is not yet familiar in Indonesia and due to cost constraint is unlikely to happen in the next two years. The use of equipment that can automatically produce verbal instructions for the users is not a familiar technology in Indonesian, especially for the society in West Sumatera Province. In response to the learners' needs as also suggested by Ortega, the learners in this research context do not need high technology equipment to enable task-based ideal activities. However, some considerations need to be made to facilitate the task-based and local context. A point to note is that TELL does not have a significant effect on oral communication as reported in Section 2.3.1 might also be relevant to the Digital Kitchen projects by Seedhouse *et al*., (2014).

The Second Life project aimed to teach English and Chinese students measured the learners' self-efficacy Henderson, Huang, Grant, and Henderson (2009). It was found form focused and grammar was the main point of practice. Sixteen teachers of English in Malaysia were interviewed by Mustafa (2012) to seek their experience of using technology-mediated TBLT focussed on process writing tasks. The teachers commented that large class size and the selection and sequencing of tasks in mixed ability groups was challenging. The centralised, examination-oriented education system and the emphasis on PPP in Malaysia also presented problems. A major weakness of Mustafa's work is that the views of the students were not sought.

Strobl (2014) studied the use of computer-supported collaborative writing on the complexity, accuracy, and the fluency of output of learners studying individually and collaboratively. Her study group (48 Belgian advanced writing students of German) used mixed methods. No statistical difference in final competence was found between students that learnt individually or collaboratively. Both performed well in peer-

feedback academic writing task. It was not possible to say whether it was the initial advanced proficiency, good self-motivation or the technology itself that influenced the result. Strobl proposed further research to measure the impact of Web 2.0 technologies. Further work studying learners with lower levels of writing proficiency is needed.

2.8 The basis for future work in Indonesia

The introduction of technology-mediated TBLT is proposed in this thesis to address five problems identified in an Indonesian Higher Education Institution (HEI). These are 1) lack of motivation for EFL students, 2) challenges facing ESP implementation in vocational institutions, 3) learning styles, 4) technology utilisation, and 5) other institutional challenges. The thesis aims to evaluate the teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in classes that use the Internet as part of technology integration in a TBLT approach.

The adoption of TBLT is in-line with the Review of National Policies for Education in Indonesia (OECD/ADB, 2015), which steered the 2013 curriculum towards interactive teaching and team-based learning. It is also consistent with the findings of Mufida, Mukhyaiyar and Radjab (2013) who argued that Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and task-based language teaching and learning (TBLT) in Indonesia increased students' motivation to speak English and in general.

As noted by Sockett and Toffoli (2012) language learning increasingly takes place in virtual communities outside the classroom. This allows freedom of time, provides existing virtual communities, and assumes that the learners are intrinsically motivated. The question is, what happens when students do not have intrinsic motivation? Will they learn the new language successfully?

2.9 Summary

In this chapter research on task-based language teaching and learning (TBLT), technology-mediated learning, and technology-mediated TBLT have been explored. They are the foundation of this study. Definitions of TBLT and technology-mediated language learning have been given and empirical studies discussed. I have also reviewed definitions and theories of motivation, and recent studies related to the central themes that emerged from the research. Based on the findings of this research on

available literature, it is evident that motivation is not an absolute determinant of successful language learning outcomes.

No literature was found on the association between motivation and the use of a technology-mediated TBLT framework, especially in the context of vocational learning in Indonesia. However, Blake (2016) suggested that when CALL is carefully situated within a TBLT framework, it can contribute to the development of second language, including the development of writing skills. It is concluded that a combination of TBLT and the use of technology are promising ways to motivate students in this research context to improve their English writing skills.

Very little was found in the literature on the application of technology-mediated TBLT for teaching writing skills in a vocational teaching context. Therefore, this current study is expected to contribute to this area of research. To reach this target, further theoretical frameworks on motivation, teaching writing, and language learning strategies are also explored and critically discussed, including different definitions of motivation and motivation in language learning, its types, and how to explore language learning motivation issues.

The motivation theories reviewed in this literature review were used to design questionnaires to identify the students' level of motivation for the study in this thesis and to lay down guidelines for classroom observation. The questions explored the students' beliefs about their motivation level, which was measured through their self-rating. Based on the literature review in this chapter, the research design of the study is explored in the next chapter, which discusses the details of the research methodology in more detail.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter the methodology used to conduct the main study is outlined and follows the framework for research design introduced by Creswell (2009). There are twelve sections overall in this chapter with three main components involved in the process of research design: the philosophical paradigm (section 3.2), and strategies of inquiry (section 3.3). For the research methods, this study explores the mixed methods procedures which are divided into nine sections: the research questions (3.4), ethics (3.5), data collection methods (3.6), quantitative data analysis (3.7), and qualitative data analysis (3.8). For reporting the findings, two sections are presented: representing the quantitative data analysis (3.9) and representing the quantitative data analysis (3.10). Two separate sections are allocated to describe the pilot study (section 3.11) and validity and reliability (section 3.12). Finally, the methodology chapter is summarised in Section 3.13.

3.2 Philosophical paradigms

The Oxford English Dictionary defines a ‘paradigm’ as a worldview related to theories and methodology in investigating a certain scientific subject (Paradigm, n.d). Vidal (2008) suggested that worldview is a term used to emphasise a personal and historical point of view. In other words, by having a research paradigm, one can justify what is meant by knowledge (epistemology) and how this knowledge is constructed and verified in relation to reality (ontology). Creswell (2009) explained the main elements of the worldviews and their implications for practice is summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Element of worldviews and implications for practice

Worldview Element	Post-positivism	Constructivism	Participatory	Pragmatism
Ontology (What is the nature of reality?)	Singular reality (e.g., researchers reject or fail to reject hypothesis)	Multiple realities (e.g., researchers provide quotes to illustrate different perspective)	Political reality (e.g., findings are negotiated with participants)	Singular and multiple realities (e.g., researchers test hypotheses and provide multiple perspectives)
Epistemology (What is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched?)	Distance and impartiality (e.g., researchers objectively collect data on instruments)	Closeness (e.g., researchers visit participants at their sites to collect data)	Collaboration (e.g., researchers actively involve participants as collaborators)	Practicality (e.g., researchers collect data by "what works" to address the research question)
Axiology (What is the role of values?)	Unbiased (e.g., researchers use checks to eliminate bias)	Biased (e.g., researchers actively talk about their biases and interpretations)	Negotiated (e.g., researchers negotiate their biases with participants)	Multi stances (e.g., researchers include both biased and unbiased perspectives)
Methodology (What is the process of research?)	Deductive (e.g., researchers test an a priori theory)	Inductive (e.g., researchers start with participants' view and build "up" to patterns, theories, and generalisations)	Participatory (e.g., researchers involve participants' in all stages of the research and engage in cyclical reviews of results)	Combining (e.g., researchers collect both quantitative and qualitative data and mix them)
Rhetoric (What is the language of research?)	Formal style (e.g., researchers use agreed-on definitions of variables)	Formal style (e.g., researchers write in a literary, informal style)	Advocacy and change (e.g., researchers use language that will help bring about change and advocate for participants)	Formal and informal (e.g., researchers employ both formal and informal styles of writing)

(Creswell & Clark, 2011, p.42)

Table 3.1 summarises four main research paradigms in social science research in terms of their ontology, epistemology, axiology, methodology and rhetoric elements. The way knowledge is studied and interpreted is influenced by the research paradigm or worldview (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006) as summarised in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Paradigms: Language commonly associated with major research paradigms

Positivist/post-positivist	Interpretivist/Constructivist	Transformative	Pragmatic
• Experimental • Quasi-experimental • Correlational • Reductionism • Theory verification • Causal comparative • Determination • Normative	• Naturalistic • Phenomenological • Hermeneutic • Interpretivist • Ethnographic • Multi-participant meanings • Social and historical constructions • Theory generation • Symbolic interaction	• Critical theory • Neo-Marxist • Feminist • Critical race theory • Freirean • Participatory • Emancipatory • Advocacy • Grand narrative • Empowerment issue-oriented • Change-oriented • Interventionist • Queer theory • Race-specific • political	• Consequences of actions • Problem-centred • Pluralistic • Real-world practice oriented • Mixed models

(Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006)

Post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory, and pragmatism are the four most frequently cited paradigms in the process of constructing new knowledge through scientific research. A positivist paradigm is based on a realist approach to knowledge development. It is based on empirical evidence following logic and objectivity and a measurable approach involving quantifiable data tested through hypotheses. The research is mostly carried out in a researcher constructed environment or a laboratory. In the social sciences, positivism does not allow researchers to involve their personal value judgements when reaching a conclusion.

Post-positivism is a response to the positivist paradigm which holds that observation has errors and theory can be revised. It acknowledges that the individual cannot see the world perfectly and accepts multiple observations and triangulation across multiple fillable perspectives.

In contrast, the interpretivist paradigm simply rejects the use of hypotheses to generate knowledge. Reality is understood without forming and testing hypotheses. Each reality is considered knowledge in its own specific case and accepted in that specific context without generalising. It answers the 'why' element that the positivist paradigm cannot answer. Interpretivism is also known as a constructivist paradigm. It is related to the attempt to acquire understanding rather than simply measure the phenomenon under investigation. It is subjective, contextualised and value-dependent and relies on the participants' view on the matters being studied. The transformative paradigm is mostly for research into social justice and marginalised societies that carry an agenda to improve the life of its participants, institutions, or the researchers' lives.

The pragmatism paradigm does not believe in a single system of philosophy or reality. It focuses on the 'what' and 'how' in the research problems. It interprets the reality of the observed situation in the research context and tries to find a solution through the application of empirical enquiries. In this respect it connects the interpretivist and the positivist paradigms.

This study falls into the pragmatism paradigm category. The investigation made empirical observations and measured motivation and it is related to other variables, such as task engagement and classroom attitude. The variables observed were the students' achievements, assessed by their performance in writing modules, and the students' judgment of their experience in learning through writing tasks and the internet technology, such as Web 2.0 applications and search engines. To record the participants' voice, this study adopted a quantitative approach to the participants' responses to closed-ended questions, as well as qualitatively to open-ended questions using online questionnaires. Their voice was also heard through one-to-one interviews with lecturers and through focus group discussions (FGD).

The study aimed to improve our understanding of in foreign language learning and thereby lead to improved teaching methods. The study investigated four main points:

1. How a task and technology approach affected motivation to learn English as a Foreign Language;
2. The effects of motivation on writing task performance;
3. The effects of internet technology on motivation to complete tasks in writing classes;

4. The steps to complete a writing task.

The participants' feelings and opinions about the learning process were a crucial part of the study. These data were gained from FGDs with the students, and interviews with the lecturers. The information gained was used to construct new knowledge about language learning motivation

An integrated perspective was used to distinguish motivated from unmotivated learners; the judgement was drawn from the learners' statements. Their lecturers also provided input on their perception of the students' motivation, and on the learning process. This input was used as triangulation.

I based my epistemological standing on the perspective of motivated learning of students and lecturers along with their perspective on the usefulness of the technology-mediated task-based learning approach. I report my results in the learning context I observed. My interpretation from observation and the belief of what the participants accepted as truth are considered as knowledge. The conclusion drawn from the research is therefore based on the shared truth of both parties.

My conclusions are not drawn from my perspective; they are not a direct perception of the reality (Burr, 2015). Social constructionism also influenced the writer's philosophical paradigm. I consider mixing of these two the paradigms as pragmatism. Furthermore, my research aimed to solve the problem of the motivational issue and English writing skills at the targeted institution, in itself a pragmatic intention. To achieve the objective, it was necessary to use a wide variety of data collection methods and analytical tools and, thus the flexibility, to meet the objective.

3.3 Strategies of inquiry

Strategies of inquiry are also known as approaches to an inquiry or research methodologies (Bazeley & Brindle, 2015; Bryman, 2016; Creswell, 2009; Creswell, 2014; Jones, 1985b), and there are typically three strategies: 1) quantitative, 2) qualitative and 3) mixed methods.

A different category of strategies of inquiry was addressed by Schunk, Meece, and Pintrich (2008). They considered five motivational research paradigms: 1) correlation research, 2) experimental research, 3) qualitative research, 4) laboratory research, and 5) field research. Correlation and experimental research studies the

relationships among variables and are the strategies for quantitative studies. Qualitative research is used to find the structures of events in a specified context and aims to provide more intensive and complete results. Laboratory and field research focus on the environment in which the research is conducted. Laboratory research takes place in a controlled setting. For example, students are taken out of their classrooms to a purpose-built facility where researchers have full control of the learning environment. Field research takes place within the participant's normal environment, and the results are thus more generalisable.

This study uses three of the strategies shown to be effective in Applied Linguistic studies.

Quantitative strategies are experimental and non-experimental designs to collect data in a controlled context. The data are then analysed statistically to test hypotheses deductively. They are commonly used when the sample size is large (Brown, 2004).

Qualitative strategies involve non-experimental designs involving data collection in a naturally occurring context that requires interpretative analysis. Different from the quantitative strategies, small sample size, hypothesis forming, and inductive reasoning are identified with qualitative strategies (Brown, 2004).

Mixed methods strategies (Creswell & Plano 2011) is the combination of both strategies.

Psychology researchers, such as Campbell and Fiske in 1959 (Campbell & Fiske, 1959) introduced the use of multiple quantitative methods, followed by Sieber in 1973 who combined surveys and interviews. In 1978, discussion on the use of both quantitative and qualitative data was initiated by Denzin followed by a discussion on triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data by Jick in 1979 and ended by Cook and Reichart in the same year who presented ten ways to combine quantitative and qualitative data. Mixed methods were positioned as a natural complement to traditional quantitative and qualitative research.

Mixed methods research is grouped into sequential, concurrent, and transformative mixed methods.

- **Sequential approach: as the name indicates, is an approach to inquiry in which qualitative or quantitative strategies follow sequentially as the research progresses.**

- **Concurrent approach: designed to converge and merge the qualitative and quantitative approaches. The data are then integrated into the interpretation of the final research outcomes.**
- **Transformative approach: incorporates personal values and assumptions.**

In Applied Linguistics research in second and foreign language acquisition, mixed methods are typically applied followed by quasi-experimental studies (Brown, 2004; Jones, 1985a; Ortega, 2005; Spada, 1997). Riazi and Cadlin (2014) claimed that mixed method in SLA research provides a more comprehensive understanding of the object of study which has a primary purpose for triangulation. Triangulation in this context is an alternative to validation.

The complementarity purpose addressed by Riazi and Cadlin (2014) is the application of different methods to examine varied levels of phenomena within the social context. It suggests different research questions and processes require different data types and analysis to complement each other. Hashemi and Babaii (2013), in a qualitative content analysis study involving mixed methods research, examined 332 articles written over a seven-year period published in five journals of Applied Linguistics. They found that mixed methods were used because they were practical in most circumstances. Studies involving TBLT (Lee, 2016; Mustafa, 2010), technology-mediated learning (Collentine, 2011; Tai, 2015; Tsai, Kuo, Horng, & Chen, 2012), writing skills (Chand, 2014; Yim & Warschauer, 2017), and language learning motivation also frequently used mixed methods.

The research reported in this thesis is a descriptive study of the use of technology to improve the English writing skills of students in the higher vocational education in Indonesia. The study was designed from the general to the specific, from deciding the paradigm, theoretical lens, methodological approach, and the methods of data collection (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Crotty, 1998). It was decided that a mixed method strategy was appropriate. This strategy was chosen considering the purposes of the study (Riazi & Cadlin, 2014). By triangulating the results from questionnaires, further knowledge on the issues was gained by engaging with the sources of information in the interview and focus group discussions. In addition, by observing the students' way of performing their tasks it was possible to improve our understanding of the patterns of learning.

Further understanding was gained by triangulating the results from the questionnaires with the observations. An in-depth understanding of different patterns was acquired by observation of student's way of performing their tasks. This research started by mapping specific students' motivation in a vocational HEI, their study preferences and their perceptions about technology-mediated task-based learning.

The students completed a questionnaire which was followed up by discussions with the students. To cross check the data, lecturers were also interviewed to acquire a balanced insight into the design the next stage of the research.

Since the context of the research was on vocational higher education, this research was more educational rather than social research. It might not be generalizable, but it is more applicable to certain similar research contexts in the use of technology for foreign language teaching at higher education level. This research was aimed at a descriptive study of the use of technology in order to improve English proficiency in the vocational context. As mentioned in chapter two, the research work presented in this thesis follows Seedhouse and Almutairi's (2009) approach. While Seedhouse and Almutairi's work was limited to speaking skills development and Conversational Analysis, this study dealt with motivation, technology and writing skills. The difference between Seedhouse and Almutairi's work and this study lies in the targeted skills. While their work focused on speaking skills, this project addressed the importance of writing skills.

3.4 The research questions

The study was designed to answers three research questions:

RQ1. How do Indonesian EFL students' perceptions about motivation to learn English writing skills reflect their experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom?

RQ2. What are the factors that affect students' motivation in completing their English writing tasks in a technology-mediated task-based approach?

RQ3. How do students complete technology-mediated TBL writing tasks?

3.5 Ethics

In line with the University of Central Lancashire's (UCLan) regulations on ethics, the data collected were handled with care and confidentiality. The raw data were stored

and destroyed upon the completion of the study, while the digitalised version was stored on the university's password protected network. Even though *Politeknik Negeri Padang* (*PNP*) did not require any ethical provisions, UCLan's ethical protocols were employed. Written permission for the research study was given by the Director of the *PNP*, the Vice Director of the Academic Affairs, the Head of the Department, and the lecturers involved.

3.6 Data collection methods

The quantitative analysis comes from the online questionnaires (Google Form) completed by the students. The qualitative data are from the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with the students, and from interviews with the lecturers. Further data were collected from observation of classroom interactions, documentation, and the recorded scores from the Writing 1 and Technical Writing 1 modules. Activities in the classrooms were observed and photographed. Details on data collection and analysis are summarised in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 The research design

No	Research Questions	Strategy	Data collection methods	Instruments	Analysis
1	How do Indonesian EFL students' perceptions about motivation to learn English writing skills reflect their experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom?	Quantitative	Questionnaire (120 students)	3 questions Online survey using Google Forms	Descriptive statistics (mean, SD) Correlating the writing score and the reported motivation rank
		Qualitative	Interview (8 lecturers) FGD: 4 Groups (5-6 students)	2 questions Semi-structured	Thematic analysis
			Observation 6 classes, 2 x each	Note-taking, and unstructured direct observation The scores from the Writing 1 and Technical Writing 1 Modules	
2	What are the factors that affect students' motivation to complete their English writing tasks in a technology-mediated task-based approach?	Quantitative	Questionnaire (120 students)	3 questions Online survey using Google Forms	Descriptive statistics (mean, SD) Content analysis
		Qualitative	Interview (8 lecturers) FGD: 4 Groups (5-6 students)	5 questions: Semi-structured	Thematic analysis
			Observation 2 classes, 3 x each	Note-taking and unstructured direct observation	NVivo
3	How do students complete technology-mediated TBL writing tasks?	Quantitative	Questionnaire (120 students)	3 questions Online survey using Google Forms	Descriptive statistics (mean, SD)
		Qualitative	Interview (8 lecturers) FGD: 4 Groups (5-6 students)	10 questions Semi-structured Audio recording and note taking	Thematic analysis
			Observation 6 classes, 2 x each	Note-taking and unstructured direct observation	NVivo

Table 3.3 presents the details of research design of this study: the three research questions, strategies, data collection methods, instruments, and data analysis methods.

3.6.1 Participants

Politeknik Negeri Padang (PNP) is a vocational HEI located in West Sumatra, Indonesia. It offers a three-year study programme that focusses on applied sciences and aims to equip graduates with technical skills needed by industries. There are seven departments: Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Civil Engineering, Accountancy, Business Administration, Technology Information, and English. Class size ranges from 20 to 25 students (*Politeknik Negeri Padang*, n.d).

3.6.1.1 The students

There were 144 students enrolled in the first to six semesters at the English Department of *PNP*. Their ages ranged between 17 and 25. The online questionnaire recorded some demographic data, such as the students' age, sex, and language background, (see Appendix 10). The differences among participants are not crucial, as this study did not investigate the effect of language background, sex, or students' age on either their motivation or on the effectiveness of task and technology utilisation. The student population of the English Department is given in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 The Students population of the English Department

Number of students	1A	1B	2A	2B	3A	3B	Prospective graduates	Total
Male	3	8	8	7	5	6	1	38
Female	23	19	14	17	19	15	21	128
Total	**26**	**27**	**22**	**24**	**24**	**21**	**22**	**166**

Of the 144 students, 125 completed the online questionnaire and participation ranged from 58% to 108% (two duplicate responses by unidentifiable Class 2B students gave rise to 108% return). These data were retained and analysed (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5 Demography: Participants by sex

			Classes					
			1A	1B	2A	2B	3A	3B
Registered	• Male		3	8	8	7	5	6
	• Female		23	19	14	17	19	15
		Total	**26**	**27**	**22**	**24**	**24**	**21**
Participated in questionnaire (Frequency)	• Male		3	7	7	8	4	4
	• Female		19	19	13	18	10	13
		Total	**22**	**26**	**20**	**26**	**14**	**17**
Participated in questionnaire (Percentage)	• Male		100%	88%	88%	114%	80%	67%
	• Female		83%	100%	93%	106%	53%	87%
	Total		**85%**	**96%**	**91%**	**108%**	**58%**	**81%**

There was no significant difference between the percentage of males and females that answered the questionnaire (Table 3.5). The highest percentage of respondents was from Class 1B (96.2 %); the lowest from Class 3A (58.5%).

Focus group discussions (FGD) were conducted between 28 October to 2 December 2016 with eight groups of students' representatives of each class and each level. Two groups from students who were about to graduate were also included (Table 3.6).

Table 3.6 The FGD participants by sex

Activity	Class	Date	Number of Participants	
			Female	Male
FGD 1	1A	30-Nov-16	6	0
FGD 2	1 B	30-Nov-16	5	0
FGD 3	2 B	01-Dec-16	5	1
FGD 4	2 B	01-Dec-16	6	2
FGD 5	1 B	01-Dec-16	4	1
FGD 6	2A	01-Dec-16	4	1
FGD 7	2A	02-Dec-16	2	4
FGD 8	3 A& 3 B	02-Dec-16	4	2
FGD 9	Graduates	28-Oct-16	4	0
FGD 10	Graduates	28-Oct-16	8	0
Total			48	11
				59

Table 3.6 records that 59 students who participated were 41% of the students' population. In each year group, more female than male students took part in the FGDs, suggesting that the women were more responsive in face-to-face participation. Participation in both the online questionnaire and FGDs elements was higher in Year 2 students. These students had been more involved in the planning of the research, and this result implies that frequent contact encouraged their active participation.

The following is a brief discussion of the participants' language background gathered from demographic data on the online questionnaire. Masduqi (2014) found that Bahasa Indonesia, the national language, was the daily language for interaction in Indonesian universities. However, the local language (Minangkabau Language) is the daily language used by 76% of the students (Table 3.7).

Table 3.7 The students' language background

Daily Languages Usage	Frequency	Per cent
Bahasa Indonesia	15	12.0
Local Language (Minang)	95	76.0
Local Language (Non-Minang)	4	3.2
Mixed (Bahasa Indonesia and 2 Local Languages)	1	0.8
Mixed (Bahasa Indonesia and English)	1	0.8
Mixed (Bahasa Indonesia and Foreign Languages)	1	0.8
Mixed (Other Local Languages)	1	0.8
Mixed (Bahasa Indonesia and Minang Language)	1	0.8
Missing Responses	6	4.8
Total	125	100

Table 3.7 presents the demographic data on the students' first language extracted from the questionnaire. Only 12 % of the students reported that Bahasa Indonesia (the national language) was their daily language for interaction. A small number of participants were bi- or multi-lingual (M = 2.08, SD = .958). The data cannot be used to infer that these students had an inherent ability to learn a new language. The age at which the students started to learn English is shown in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8 The age at which the students started to learn English

Age (Years)	Frequency	Per cent	Age (Years)	Frequency	Per cent
2	1	.8	11	10	8.0
3	3	2.4	12	2	1.6
4	3	2.4	13	5	4.0
5	2	1.6	14	1	0.8
6	20	16.0	15	1	0.8
7	11	8.8	16	1	0.8
8	16	12.8	17	1	0.8
9	19	15.2	9999	1	0.8
10	28	22.4	**Total**	**125**	**100**

Table 3.8 shows that the age of the students' first contact with English language ranged from 2 to 17 years old (M = 8.68, SD = 2.542) with 83% experiencing this between the ages of 6 and 11. English, as a compulsory subject, was introduced in Year 3 of primary

education (age 9 and 10) and continued to tertiary level (Masduqi, 2014). The implications of learning multiple languages are considered in Chapter 5.

The reasons that the students gave for enrolling in the English Department are shown in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9 The reasons given by students for choosing to study within the English Department (Item 2)

Reasons	No of Response	Per cent
To be able to communicate well in English	72	57.6
To get a good job	35	28.0
To be obedient to parents by following their aspiration	0	0
To ease getting enrolled in the higher education institution	3	2.4
No other options	14	11.2
Missing Data	1	0.8
Total	125	100

Table 3.9 indicates the ability to communicate easily in English (57.6%) and to enhance job prospects (28%) far outweighed the other reasons.

The research also examined the level of motivation among students enrolled in the English Department. *PNP* uses the Indonesian entry test for vocational higher education to select its students. Candidates choose and then priorities the three departments they wish to enter. They are admitted if their exam grades are sufficient. The research examined the numbers of students by year of entry that chose the English Department as their first, second, or third option. The results are shown in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10 Rank of entry option cross tabulation (Item 3)

			Classes by Year of Entry			Total
			Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	
Rank of Entry Option	First	Number of Students	20	16	19	55
		Percentage of Students	41.7%	34.8%	61.30%	44%
	Second	Number of Students	22	22	11	55
		Percentage of Students	45.8%	47.8%	35.50%	44%
	Third	Number of Students	6	7	1	14
		Percentage of Students	12.5%	15.2%	3.20%	11.20%
	Missing	Number of Students	0	1	0	1
		Percentage of Students	0%	2.2%	0%	0.80%
Total		Number of Students	48	46	31	125
		Percentage of Students	100%	100%	100%	100%

Students that listed the English Department as their first option may be presumed to have had a greater motivation to learn the language and thus to obtain higher grades in examinations. The data in Table 3.10 are subdivided by their year of entry following the nature of the leveling. Overall 44% of students opted to study English as their first choice and a further 44% as their second choice. However, there were differences

between years of entry. The figures were 87.5% in Year 1, 82.6% in Year 2, and 96.8% in Year 3. Furthermore, far fewer students in Year 2 (34.8%) than Year 1 (41.7%) and Year 3 (61.3%) chose English as their first option. Only those students who had studied natural sciences, but not social sciences, at high schools were eligible to select English as their third option. The number (14) and percentage (12%) are thus far fewer.

3.6.1.2 The lecturers

The department had 27 lecturers from different backgrounds. Demographic data on their sex, age, place of origin, ethnicity, English exposure and type of participation is given in Table 3.11.

Table 3. 11 Lecturers' details

No.	Details	Sex	Age	Origin	Ethnicity	English Exposure	Participation	
							Observation	Interview
1	Lecturer 1	Female	37	Jakarta + Padang	Minangkabau	Study abroad		
2	Lecturer 2	Female	38	Padang	Minangkabau	Study abroad	✓	✓
3	Lecturer 3	Female	36	Padang	Minangkabau			✓
4	Lecturer 4	Female	37	Padang + Australia	Minangkabau	Study and grow up abroad	✓	✓
5	Lecturer 5	Male	43	Padang	Minangkabau	Study abroad		✓
6	Lecturer 6	Male	44	Padang + Pekanbaru	Minangkabau	Study abroad		
7	Lecturer 7	Male	43	Padang	Minangkabau+Javanesse	Study abroad		✓
8	Lecturer 8	Female	67	Padang	Minangkabau			
9	Lecturer 9	Female	34	Padang	Minangkabau			
10	Lecturer 10	Female	53	Padang	Minangkabau			
11	Lecturer 11	Female	52	Padang	Minangkabau		✓	
12	Lecturer 12	Female	34	Padang	Minangkabau			
13	Lecturer 13	Female	31	Padang	Minangkabau		✓	✓
14	Lecturer 14	Male	36	Padang	Minangkabau			
15	Lecturer 15	Female	33	Padang + Yogyakarta	Minangkabau		✓	✓
16	Lecturer 16	Female	37	Padang	Minangkabau			
17	Lecturer 17	Female	49	Padang	Minangkabau	Study abroad		
18	Lecturer 18	Male	39	Medan	Minangkabau+Bataknesse			
19	Lecturer 19	Female	42	Padang	Minangkabau	Study and other self development program abroad		✓
20	Lecturer 20	Female	35	Padang	Minangkabau			
21	Lecturer 21	Male	36	Padang	Minangkabau			
22	Lecturer 22	Female	40	Padang	Minangkabau		✓	✓
23	Lecturer 23	Female	47	Padang	Minangkabau			
24	Lecturer 24	Female	37	Padang	Minangkabau			✓
25	Lecturer 25	Female	45	Padang	Javanesse			
26	Lecturer 26	Male	40	Medan + Padang	Nias			
27	Lecturer 27	Female	44	Padang	Minangkabau		✓	✓

Table 3.11 shows 20 females and 7 males whose ages ranged from 33 to 67 were from four Indonesian ethnicities and grew up at different places in Indonesia which might contribute to their teaching ability and motivating attitude in the class. 30% of these lecturers had exposure to authentic English use during their study abroad.

The participation of the lecturers was voluntary for the interview sessions. However, the lecturers who taught writing and broadcasting classes were approached and consented before conducting the observation. They accepted the planning eagerly and provided genuine assistance during the data collection process. Seven female

lecturers were observed during the writing classes and TB Broadcasting Worksop. Nine females and two male lecturers took part in the study and participated in one-to-one interviews. All had post-graduate degrees. Their educational backgrounds are presented in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12 Lecturers' educational background

	University Lecturer		Professional
	English Pedagogy	(Applied) Linguistics	Radio Broadcasting
Male	2	0	
Female	5	3	1

The background of each lecturer who participated in the study is recorded in Table 3.12. The majority of the participants had a postgraduate degree in English pedagogy. In addition, three of the lecturers were from Linguistics and Applied Linguistics postgraduate level.

3.6.2 Mixed methods procedures for data collection

Qualitative and quantitative approaches were used to collect and to analyse the data. The data were collected between 3 October 2016 and 2 December 2016 in the academic year 2016-17 that had started on 2 September 2016. As the study followed the concurrent approach, the qualitative and quantitative data collection took place at the same time. The information was obtained from observation of the classes attended by the students, from an online questionnaire, FGDs with the students and interviews with the lecturers.

Prior to commencing students had been informed, by emails and Facebook Groups, of the background and purpose of the study. A more detailed explanation was then given by the researcher to individual students, and their written consent to take part was obtained (see Appendix 2). Discussions were also held with the teaching staff of the English Department to explain the methods and aims of the research and obtained their agreement to participate.

The questionnaires were administered to the students by the researcher who then distributed a paper to the students to write down their Facebook account and email address. Following that, the researcher shared the link to the Google Forms' questionnaires through both media. Prior to collecting their address, the researcher explained the study to the students and distributed the consent letter. After students completed the consent and agreed to participate, the session for questionnaires was conducted. The researcher accompanied the students during the questionnaires' session

as they had not previously participated in an online survey and thus needed verbal guidance. After completion of the questionnaire, the students wrote their narratives which described themselves, their past and their future. The information they provided was used as a source of quantitative data.

Following the questionnaire and the writing activities, class observations followed, after which students indicated their wish to or disinterest in participating in Focus Group Discussion (FGD). After the FGDs, the lecturers were interviewed. After the FGDs, the lecturers were interviewed. The additional sources of quantitative data were the scores from the writing modules: the assignment, the mid-test, the final test, and the final module scores.

3.6.3 Instruments

The instruments for this study consisted of an online questionnaire, focus group discussion, interview, observation, and students' news script, records of class attendance and academic achievement. Prior to collecting data, the consent form was provided to students, lecturers, the Director of the institution (*PNP*), Head of English Department, and the Head of the IT Department. From two quantitative instruments (the closed-ended questionnaire and the scores), thirteen variables were identified from questionnaire items and four variables from related documents on scores of learning outcomes (see Appendix 15). The following subsections detail each of the instruments.

The process of gathering the data is illustrated in Figure 3.1

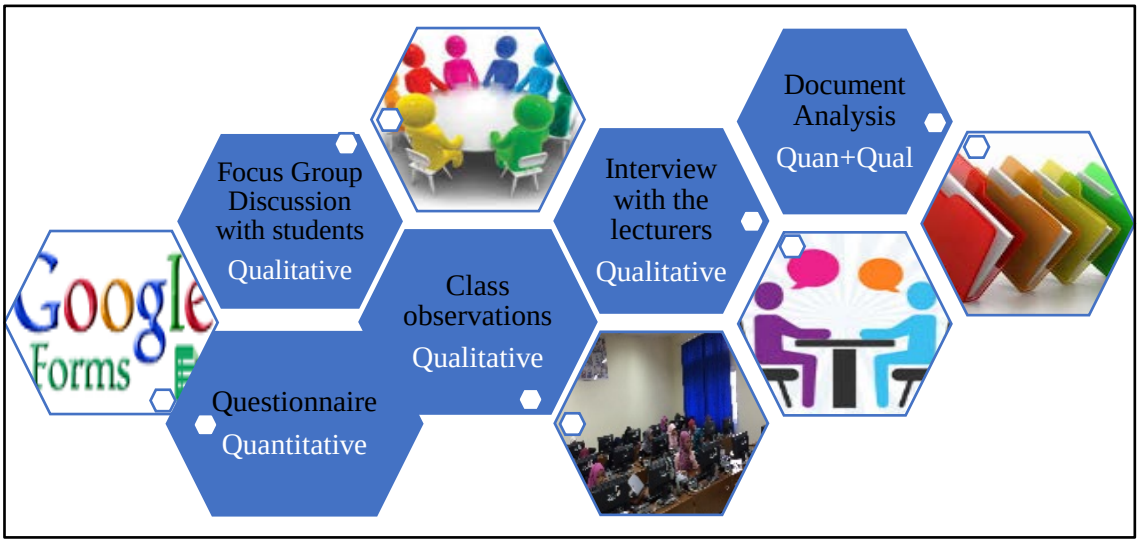

Figure 3.1 The concurrent data gathering sequence

Figures 3.1 summarised the chronological order of the data collection process. Details of this data gathering planning is explored in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13 Details of the instruments

Tools	Time	Procedure	Reason
Online Questionnaire	29 - 30 November 2016	Students fill in the online questionnaire through Google Forms in the multimedia computer laboratory accompanied by the researcher	To extract individual true reflection of motivation, feeling, and attitude toward related issues that frees students from the researcher's influence and bias
Classroom Observation	5 October - 1 December 2016	Direct observation; the researchers sat in the very last raw of the laboratory observing and taking photographs of the activities and took note	To understand the nature of classroom interaction, the actual reflection of motivation, the application of technology-mediated TBLT and students' way of completing their writing tasks
Focus Group Discussion	30 November - 1 December 2016	Volunteering students decided their groups within their class and agreed the time for the discussion, audio recorded	To reflect and to clarify with the students about their motivation, feeling and opinion about their classroom interaction as well as the classroom observation findings
Interview	26 October - 2 December 2016	Volunteering lecturers decided the time for the discussion, audio recorded	To triangulate the findings from other instruments and to gather the lecturers' judgment on their students' learning motivation and the effectiveness of the technology-mediated TBLT
Documents	20 November 2016 – 20 March 2017	Documents were collected from the department's archives and online resources dealing with the scores from the modules	To gain relevant information about the teaching and learning process, such as the curriculum, attendance, participation and the outcomes of the learning

As shown in Table 3.13, each instrument was concurrently used to gather data from the institution. It was done considering the time available and the unexpected changes happening at the institution that was not identified earlier. Therefore, the data gathering process was revised from a sequential process to a concurrent triangulation procedure. Details of each instruments used are explored in the following subsection.

3.6.3.1. The questionnaire

Numerous researchers have used survey techniques to explore motivation (Alina, Maria-Monica, Ana-Andreea, & Mirela-Cristina, 2012; Chraif *et al.*, 2014; Dehnad & Nasser, 2014; Eusafzai, 2013; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Gardner, 2010; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner, 2004; Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Lamb, 2004a; Lamb, 2013; Lamb, 2012; MacIntyre & Blackie, 2012; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Mozaheb, Seifoori, & Beigi, 2013; Müller & Palekčić, 2006; Nayan, Krishnasamy, & Shafie, 2014; Raby, 2007; Rifai, 2010; Rowley, Carlson, & Miller, 1998; Roy, 2015; Ryan *et al*., 1985; Sadighi & Zarafshan, 2006; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Shang, 2013; Soulimane-Benhabib, 2015). However, the degree to which surveys are a true reflection of motivation remains uncertain owing to the complex, inconsistent and dynamic aspects of motivation.

This study chose to use an online questionnaire via Google Forms as according to Bryman (2016), these are cheaper and quicker to administer, free from the researcher's influence and bias, and more convenient for the respondents. Google Forms was chosen, as the students were already familiar with Google products.

The questionnaire was in 5 parts (see Appendix 3). Part 1 consisted of Items 1–3 tracing the issue of motivation to learn English in the vocational institution, the reasons for choosing to study at the English Department, and a statement relating to their choice of the English Department in the entry test. Part 2 focused on motivation, writing and task performance (Items 4–6). Items 4–6 explored the students' perception of the relation between the themes in this study. Part 3 examined the fact that motivated or demotivated students, as well as their perception of the use of technology in learning to write in English at the institution (Items 7–9). In addition, Items 7 and 8 investigated the reason for being motivated and demotivated during the learning phase. They were also asked how they felt about their progress in writing skills (Item 9).

Part 4 consisted of Items 10 to 12 focused on technology-mediated task-based ESP (English for Specific Purposes). In order to understand the way students completed their writing task, students reported it in their responses to Items 10–12. The last part, Items 13 and 14, recorded issues relating to the effects of technology utilisation. Lastly, Item 14 sought to obtain data on students' perceptions of the use of non-technical assistance in doing their writing tasks.

The self-reporting questionnaire was utilised to elicit the required data on students' motivation about their perception of learning through tasks and technology. The students' questionnaires consisted of two parts, with sections covering the main questions and biodata. The main section consisted of fourteen close-ended questions (Item 1–14) and one open-ended question (Item 15). The possible responses to the closed-ended questions were designed differently, ranging from a 5 to 7 Likert scale options and three to seven options to choose from.

Table 3.14 The questionnaire items

Item	Focus of the question	Responses
1	Motivation level	6 horizontal scale (Very Low– Very High)
2	Reason for choosing the English Department	5 vertical options (given reasons)
3	The rank of entry option	3 vertical options (entry ranks)
4	Perception of motivation effect on writing task	6 horizontal scale (Strongly Disagree – Strongly Agree)
5	Perception of the effect of task on motivation	6 horizontal scale (Strongly Disagree – Strongly Agree)
6	Perception of the effect of technology on motivation	6 horizontal scale (Strongly Disagree – Strongly Agree)
7	Reason for being motivated	5 vertical options (given reasons)
8	Reason for being demotivated	5 vertical options (given reasons)
9	Perception of changes in writing skills	5 vertical options (given reasons)
10	Copy paste activities	7 horizontal scale (Strongly Agree – Strongly Disagree)
11	Ways to complete writing tasks	5 vertical options (given options for methods)
12	Vocabularies searching tools	7 vertical options (given options for tools)
13	Perception of the effect of non-technology utilisation on motivation to complete the task	6 horizontal scale (Strongly Disagree – Strongly Agree)
14	Perception of the use of non-technology in completing tasks	7 horizontal scale (Strongly Agree – Strongly Disagree)
15	Opinion on the effect of technology in the learning	Opened-ended question (empty space to write response)

Table 3.14 summarises the questionnaire items and the responses. The last item was designed for students to express their opinion on the effect of their learning through technology.

The researcher accompanied the students as they completed the online questionnaire and gave procedural guidance if requested. Great care was taken not to influence the students' choice of answer. The quantitative variables were:

1) Motivation level
2) Reason for choosing the English Department
3) Perception in motivation effect on writing task

4) Perception of the effect of task on motivation
5) Perception of the effect of technology on motivation
6) Reason for being motivated
7) Reason for being demotivated
8) Perception of changes in writing skills
9) Copy paste activities
10) Ways to complete writing tasks
11) Vocabulary searching tools
12) Perception of the effect of non-technology utilisation on motivation in completing tasks
13) Perception of the use of non-technology utilisation on motivation to complete the tasks.

Seventeen variables (as listed above added with the scores from assignments, mid-term test, final-term test, and the final module) were analysed descriptively. Five descriptive findings from the questionnaire were correlated with four findings from the document variables to answer the first research question (RQ1). A detailed evaluation was needed to cover three variables: 1) motivation, 2) the use of education technology in the writing process, and 3) the task-based writing activities in writing modules. Reliability check on SPSS 24 led to some items being excluded (see Section 3.12, Validity and Reliability). The second part of the questionnaire collected twenty-eight items relating to background information (see Appendix 10).

3.6.3.2 The class observations

Pring (2015) and Haw and Hadfield (2011) noted the importance of observing classes to gain an understanding of what teaching methods are effective. Observation may be in person or by video-recording of the class activities.

The class observation of classes in this study was conducted in several different classes that implemented technology-mediated TBL approaches. In this study direct observation was made on three occasions of the students in both the A and B classes of Year 1 and Year 2 and both classes of the A and B classes of Year 3 were observed once. Direct observations were made by sitting in the classrooms and simultaneously taking pictures during the teaching of writing modules. The procedure followed the guidelines developed by Dörnyei's Motivation Orientation in Language Teaching

(MOLT) scheme. The variables observed for motivational issues were attention, participation and volunteering initiative from the students as shown in Table 3.15.

Table 3.15 Motivation variables being observed (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008)

Variables	Description
Attention	Students look like they are paying attention; they are looking at the teacher and following her movement, looking at other students contributing to the task, or making physical responses.
Participation	Learners are actively interacting with the task and working on the assignment
Volunteering for teacher-fronted activity	At least one-third of the students are willingly volunteering without being coaxed by the teacher.

The variables described in Table 3.15 were used to record the classroom motivational behaviour. The template for observation was adopted from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008). However, only the learners' motivated behaviour variables were used. As the researcher did not design the tasks, the elements relating to task design were not observed.

Students in both the A and B classes of Year 1 and 2 were all observed on three occasions (see Appendix 5). Students in both classes in Year 3 were observed once. Year 1 groups received different treatment. One class was taught using internet technology, such as Edmodo and computer applications, or conventionally by using pens, pencils, paper and printed dictionaries. The Writing 1 module in Class 1A was taught by Mrs Basri and Mrs Tuti Alawiyah (pseudonyms) using Edmodo. Edmodo is a learning platform similar to Moodle that was started in 2008 in the United States. It is a free, network-based platform that enables the teaching staff to manage the communication process with their students, colleagues, and parents, sharing the learning materials, distributing quizzes, and giving assignments (Edmodo, n.d).

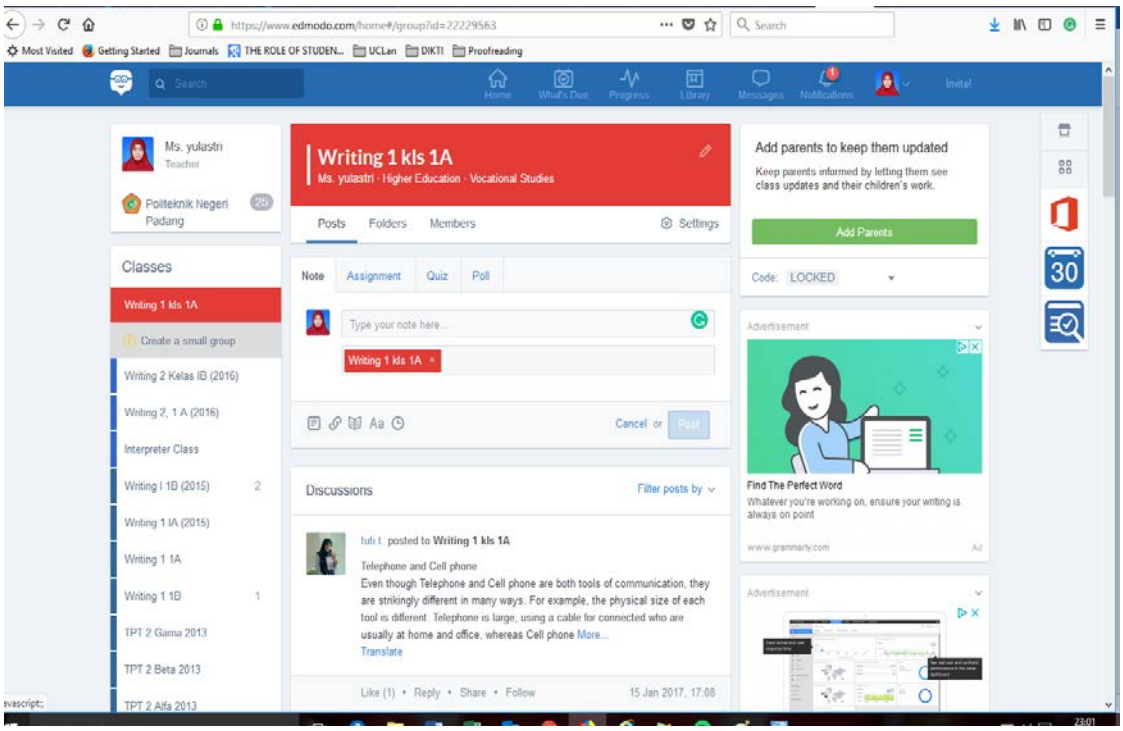

Figure 3.2 Screenshot of Edmodo class for Writing 1 module

As shown in Figure 3.2, the lecturer managed the virtual class in Edmodo. This screenshot was taken from a lecturer's Edmodo account to provide an example of how it appeared.

Class 1B was taught by Mrs Hasanah Basri and Mrs Rokhayati (pseudonyms) whose teaching focussed on the use of paper and pens. The Technical Writing 1 module in Year 2 was based on technology-mediated task-based activities. All writing modules classes were conducted in the institution's multimedia language laboratories.

Table 3.16 Classroom observation record

Classes	Observation 1	Observation 2	Observation 3
1 A	12 October 2016	23 November 2016	30 November 2016
1 B	12 October 2016	23 November 2016	30 November 2016
2 A	5 October 2016	29 November 2016	1 December 2016
2 B	5 October 2016	29 November 2016	1 December 2016

Table 3.16 shows the total of twelve observations conducted from the Year 1 and 2 groups. The English Department of *PNP* had implemented a policy for performing different treatment for Year 1 students in writing module classes. Class 1A was introduced to the use of technology emphasising the utilisation of Edmodo. Meanwhile, Class 1B was not encouraged to use the computer technology even though the learning activities took place in a multimedia language laboratory. Both classes acquired advantages from the Wi-Fi facilities, but these were limited to the use of computer technology and the web-based writing process.

3.6.3.3 The Focus Group Discussion

The results from the questionnaires were explored with the students in Focus Group Discussions (FGD) held in the English Department. Each FGD session was attended by five to eight students. A total of fifty-nine students (48 female, 11 male) in total participated.

Table 3.17 FGD participants

Classes	Group (s)	No of Students
1A	1	6
1B	2	10
2A	2	11
2B	2	14
3A & 3B	1	6
Graduate	2	12
Total	10	59

Table 3.17 presents the number of students participating in the FGD sessions that were conducted in a classroom in the English Department of *PNP*.

This instrument was chosen in order to enable the researcher to gather detailed opinions, perceptions and feelings from the informants based on the general findings from the questionnaire results. It also aimed at eliciting justification of the students' behaviour in the classroom interactions.

3.6.3.4 The interview

Interviews with lecturers were conducted for triangulation purposes (Tsouris, 2013). Eleven lecturers were personally approached for their views on their experience of teaching the students, the students' degree of motivation, the use of tasks, the use of technology, and the rewards and problems related to teaching English for Specific Purposes in the institution. The interviews were recorded using digital audio equipment and on Microsoft Office 2011. The lecturers' answers were analysed and coded to obtain an accurate understanding of their viewpoint of the learning process.

The information from the lecturers was compared with that from the learners' answers. Conclusions were made based on both sources. Overall, eleven interviews with the lecturers were conducted separately.

3.6.3.5 Institutional documents

The learning outcome scores were used as the variables to analyse. Documents relating to the students' scores across four writing classes of the entire semester, in which grading was based on the standard scoring system, were used. These included: 1) the assignment, 2) the mid-semester test, 3) final-semester test, and 4) final scores (see Appendix 13). These documents were directly downloaded from the institution's portal two months after the visit. A general description of this data is summarised in Appendix 15. Scores ranged from 60 to 85 for assignments that students had completed through the task-based writing assignment (M = 76.89, SD = 4.916). In the mid-test examination, scores ranged from 60 to 95 (M = 77.71, SD = 7. 206), while in the semester test, it was 45 to 95 (M = 77.98, SD = 7.538), and in the final exam of the writing modules, the range was from 52 to 89 M = 77.67, SD = 5.662).

These documents were used to measure the improvement or the success of the learning throughout the semester. These quantitative data were required to analyse the relationship between motivation and the effectiveness of the technology-mediated TBLT approach in the learning of writing skills.

In summary, it has been shown that seventeen variables from the quantitative data were used to explore the themes in this study.

3.7 Quantitative data analysis

The quantitative and qualitative data were analysed following the procedures suggested by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011). The data were transferred from Google Forms to Microsoft Excel 2016. They were then coded to match the criteria of the analysis software and input to IBM SPSS Statistics 23. The scale was then fixed, and the missing values set. A normality test was run followed by descriptive statistics and frequency test followed by a correlation test, t-test, and cross tabulation. These steps are explored in more detail in the following subsections.

3.7.1 Quantitative data scoring

Participants were asked to rate their learning experience on a five-point Likert scale, with 1 as "Strongly Disagree" and 7 as "Strongly Agree." The scoring of responses was straightforward: 1 point for "Strongly Disagree" 5 points for "Strongly Agree", and 2, 3, 4 points as appropriate for intermediate levels. The responses were then scored for

statistical analysis, including descriptive statistics, correlation, and the Kruskal-Wallis test for the non-normally distributed and the Likert-Scale data.

Correlation studies on motivation, technology-mediated TBLT and writing proficiency were carried out. Since the questionnaires data are on a Likert Scale or ordinal data (Sirkin, 2005), the Spearman correlation was chosen (Connolly, 2007; Field, 2013; Furlong, Lovelace, & Lovelace, 2000; Huizingh, 2007) to analyse the correlation between motivation and attitude towards English learning, and motivation and attitude towards the English writing modules. To avoid problems with non-normal distribution, the Spearman Correlation Test was applied (Huizingh, 2007).

Microsoft Excel Pivot Tables were used to tabulate the results from the Google Forms (Abbott, 2014).

3.7.2 Analysis methods

Fourteen items in the online questionnaire explored three main themes: 1) motivation, 2) task-based language learning and 3) teaching, and technology-mediated learning. A summary of the variables is given in Appendix 11.

Three variables from the fourteen items in the online questionnaire had a noticeably high mean: Item 1 (M = 5.35, SD = .789) the motivation level; item 6 (M = 5.30, SD = .783) the students' perception of the effect of technology on motivation, and Item 5 (M = 5.06, SD = .878) the effect of TBL approach on motivation.

Outliers in the questionnaire results lead to a non-normal distribution. Histogram, Q-Q Plots, or stem and leaf plots can be used to check for univariates outliers or the outliers that exist in a variable Larson-Hall (2016). There were eight items/variables that had outliers: variables 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 11 (see Appendix 9). In contrast, variables 3, 9, 10, 12, 13, and 14 did not have outliers.

Data were also taken from the learning process and the post-learning process to generate results for correlative studies. Their document analysis related to the process of learning, and the results of the learning of the writing skills, through the use of tasks and technology. A section on document analysis followed the second and last cycle in the framework of tasks based on Willis (1996b): the task and the post-task. It also dealt with the concept of the task-as-work plan, task-in process, and task-as outcome (Almutairi, 2014; Seedhouse & Almutairi, 2009). By looking at the outcomes (e.g., the

score in writing modules), it was expected that the standard for measuring the outcome of the learning could be achieved.

Documents that contained learning outcomes (i.e. the scores achieved from writing modules) were analysed to identify variables by which to measure the standard of the outcome of the learning. This standard could then be correlated with other statistical results from the questionnaires. This section was, therefore divided into two sub-sections. The first subsection concerned the documents extracted from the activities that students have done during their learning process. The second subsection related to the results of the students' learning, with data extracted from the scores that students had received in Writing 1, Technical Writing 1, and Report Writing modules. The students' attendance records were also monitored because it reflected motivation.

3.7.2.1 The statistical tests

This section explores the statistical tests used in the study both for the descriptive and inferential analysis. Woodrow (2014) in his book entitled *Writing Quantitative Research in Applied Linguistics*, defined descriptive statistics as simply describing the data that were provided by the participants and suggested that this be reported first to familiarise the researchers with their data. However, this study does not attempt to generalise the results to the wider population of English learners in Indonesia as it is specific to *PNP*.

Descriptive statistics were not used as preliminary data before the inferential results were presented as the outcome of the quantitative inquiries. However, the highest and lowest response counts were used as descriptive findings to answer RQs 2 and 3. Woodrow (2014) suggested that the highest score responses were not relevant when generalising results to the overall population. However, in this case study, the population was 144 students of whom 125 participated voluntarily. Therefore, the highest scores from responses to the related variables can be used to answer for RQs 2 and 3.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to answer RQs 1 and 3. After viewing the descriptive results, Woodrow (2014) suggested to run an inferential statistical analysis to generalise findings. In this study, the Spearman correlation was used to answer the research questions as these quantitative results were triangulated to draw valid conclusions.

The inferential statistics were correlated with the findings from the questionnaire and the documents. The questionnaire results are presented along with its inferential descriptive of findings.

A normality test was run to decide the suitable correlation procedures with the significance level set to p =.05; the agreed value in applied linguistics research (Woodrow, 2014). A test of normality was also conducted prior to running the inferential statistics analysis to help decide which types of inferential test were appropriate. The normal distribution was judged using 0.05 as the cut-off value (Larson-Hall, 2016). A normality test was run for fourteen closed-ended questions and the scores that students achieved from the Writing Modules. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilk test showed not statistically significant results (< 0.05), except the Final Score (.007) as shown in Appendix 12. The test also showed the data to be not normally distributed. The demographic data from the biodata section in the questionnaire were also not normally distributed. Therefore, the inferential statistics applied were involved non-parametric tests (Larson-Hall, 2016). Based on this normality test, it was indicated that all results were not significant. The data were not normally distributed.

Normality tests were also conducted for the scores that students obtained from the Writing modules. To crosscheck, the normality test was also conducted across different classes and on module-related scores, the Final Scores, and the motivation level. Based on the normality test on the classes and on the students' Final Scores in Writing 1 class, it was found by looking at the Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Razali & Wah, 2011; Shapiro & Wilk, 1965) that Null Hypothesis was kept (see Appendix 16). Further exploration of the tests is discussed below.

3.7.2.2 The statistical procedures

A number of statistical analysis procedures were used:

- Descriptive statistics for measuring frequencies and the data distribution.
- Inferential statistical analysis was conducted on ratio and interval data, (e.g., the test results, scores of a module). These scores were correlated with the results from the questionnaire on the level of motivation and perceptions toward learning through tasks and technology.

Six inferential statistical tests were used to generate the findings for this study:

1) Cross-tabulation was performed to analyse the nominal and ordinal variable extracted from the questionnaires.
2) A Chi-Square test was performed to check for associations
3) Correlation and regression procedures were used to test to what extent the variation in the dependent variables was explained by positioning them on a straight-line relationship with their independent variable (Sapsford, 1999). It was expected that the correlation coefficient between +1.0 (perfect negative correlation) and -1.0 (perfect positive correlation). *P*-value is used as the standard to test the hypothesis. *P* = .01 as the fisher to test the hypothesis for the RQ1.
4) The Kruskall-Wallis test was used to compare differences in motivation level among three groups based on their year of entry and also used to detect differences in motivation levels between the Year 1 groups.
5) The Spearman's Rho test was used to explore the relationship between variables and tables are used to report the correlations. For example, the correlation of test scores variables between Classes 1A and 1B. It was also used to check for validity and inter-rater reliability.
6) The Mann-Whitley Test was used to replace *t-tests* procedure for assignment, mid-test, and semester test scores for Writing 1 module of these two Year 1 groups as the data were not normally distributed.

3.8 Qualitative data analysis

3.8.1 Transcription and coding

The observation field notes and both the Focus Group Discussion and the one-to-one interviews with lecturers were sorted into units of analysis. Each unit was bound by a common theme. The qualitative data were then compared and contrasted with the quantitative data. The interviews and the FGD were generally conducted in English, althought limited parts were in Bahasa Indonesia. These sections were transcribed manually into English. To avoid cultural-related issues in translation and analysis, both versions were kept in the original transcript (van Nes, Abma, & Jonsson, 2013). These data from FGD and interviews were transcribed simply without following the standard orthographic transcription considering the use of NVivo transcription standards.

The qualitative data were then coded and analysed by theme. The qualitative data from observations, FGD, and interviews with lecturers were coded and analysed by thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998; Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012; Smith, 1992) by

utilising the qualitative analysis software NVivo. Thematic analysis is referred to as a method to identify, analyse and report patterns or themes within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). According to Boyatzis (1998) there were three stages of developing themes and codes: 1) deciding the sample and designing the issues, 2) developing the themes and codes, and 2). validating and using the codes. To develop the themes and codes, NVivo was used through automatic coding with word frequency and text search queries (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013).

Figure 3.3 Word frequency test results

As shown in Figure 3.3, a word frequency test was run in NVivo to find out the frequency of each word found in the FGD transcriptions. This helped to provide an overview of the qualitative data in general and to maintain objectivity.

Themes were also built by performing a cluster analysis using NVivo as shown in Figure 3.4.

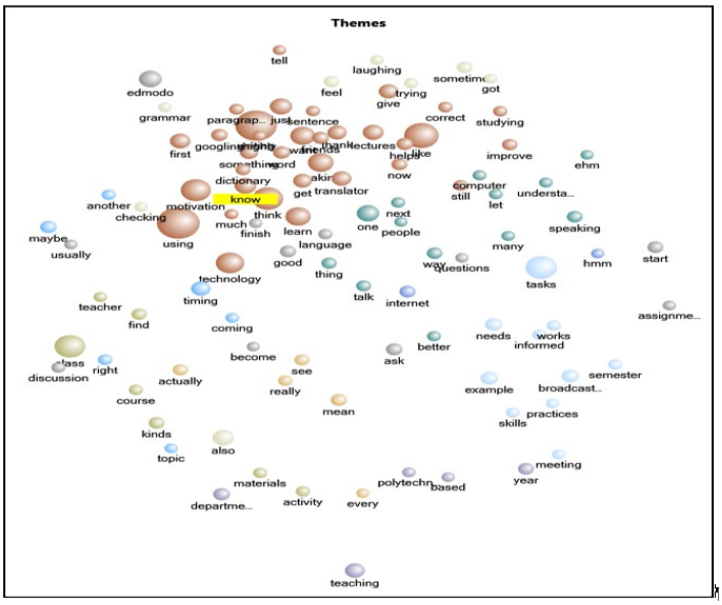

Figure 3.4 Themes generated analysis

Figures 3.4 present the way themes were developed using the software. The different sizes and the colour of the circles helped the researcher to decide the themes and the subthemes.

The thematic map of the qualitative data analysis is presented in Figure 3.5.

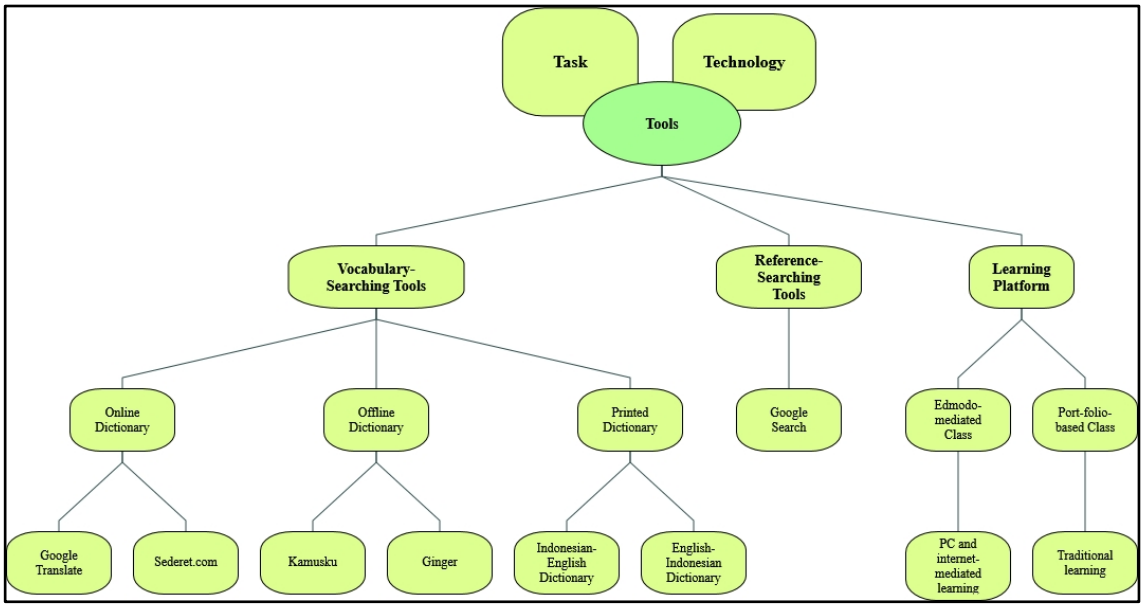

Figure 3.5 Tree nodes of the thematic analysis map of the qualitative data

As shown in Figure 3.5, three main themes were extracted from the data: 1) the motivation to learn English, 2) the effect of tasks on the learning, and 3) the effect of the use of technology in learning English writing skills.

3.8.2 Data analysis presentation

The results of the data analysis are presented in Chapters 4 and 5 in the the order of the themes of the research combining both quantitative and qualitative findings. The first part of each chapter presents the findings of both quantitative and qualitative data. The next section presents the discussion. Further explanation about the design of the data analysis representation is discussed separately in related subsections.

3.9 Representing the quantitative data analysis

The findings from the quantitative data are represented by statements that summarise the statistical results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) and in a visual form (bar charts, scatterplots, line graphs, or charts). Representation of the data in graph and graphical form is governed by the measurement level: the nominal data, by frequencies and percentage; the ordinal data by frequencies and proportion or by the means; the interval or ratio by its mean, median, and standard deviation.

Column charts were used to represent the nominal data, and bar or column charts were for the ordinal data. Bar charts were used to represent the results of its ordinal data. Frequency distribution is represented by histograms (Field, 2013).

3.10 Representing the qualitative data analysis

The results of the quantitative data analyses are presented as diagrams, charts, in comparative tables and through chronology (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Findings on RQ1 are followed by the next research questions in a different chapter.

The findings on the motivation to learn English at the PNP is covered in Chapter 4. The findings related to the influences of the use of technology in writing classes through TBLT approaches are presented in Chapter 5. This chapter covers the results from the RQ2 and RQ3 as well as the mixed methods results.

3.11 Pilot study

A pilot study is commonly used in research involving larger-scale quantitative research. It is ideally conducted on a smaller sample size to test the research instruments (Sommer & Sommer, 2002). The pilot study was conducted from 25 June to 18 August 2015 to test the instruments for the main study. The pilot study was treated as the preliminary study that provided the researcher with the basic information to design the

main study. In its earlier stage, it is not only used to test the instruments of the research but also to gather the need analysis data for the design of the class intervention in the main study. However, the class intervention was eliminated due to changes in the nature of the teaching policy at the home institution where the research took place. This was due to limitations from the sponsor; the researcher could not stay in the targeted institution in Indonesia for more than two months each year. Therefore, two months in the first year and two months in the second year had to be allocated effectively. In addition to the total time, the funding available for this study was also very limited. Adjustments had to be made for efficiency reasons.

The pilot study contributed to some changes in the main studies: the research questions, the instruments, and the number of participants were amended as summarised in Table 3.18.

Table 3.18 Adjustment of the research questions

Pilot Study	Main Study
RQ1. What is the correlation between students' reported level of motivation and their performance in task completion?	RQ1. How do Indonesian EFL students' perceptions about motivation to learn English writing skills reflect their experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom?
RQ2. What are the factors that affect students' motivation to learn English in this ESP context?	RQ2. What are the factors that affect students' motivation to complete their English writing tasks in a technology-mediated task-based approach?
RQ3. How do students complete technology-mediated TBLT tasks?	RQ3. How do students complete technology-mediated TBL writing tasks?

Table 3.18 presents the adjustment of the research questions based on the pilot study project. This adjustment was made considering the situation at the PNP during the main study phase that did not enable the researcher to access the Broadcasting-related classes.

The mixed-method approach used different instruments: questionnaires, interviews, observation, and document analysis. The quantitative part of this study made use of the Correlational and Experimental research paradigms. Correlational research was chosen in order to find a relationship between different variables and experimental research to deal with the effect of changes in these variables. Meanwhile, the qualitative

part of the study was based on qualitative, laboratory and field research paradigms. As a great source of information, this study also employed the questionnaire approach. It helped in the Pilot Class design, and ESP Needs analysis requirements. Further perspectives on the data was gained by triangulating the results from the questionnaires. In addition to the questionnaires, an in-depth understanding of different patterns was acquired by observation the way students performed their tasks. In order to be as rigorous in the research design as possible, the following sequence of data collection techniques were chosen.

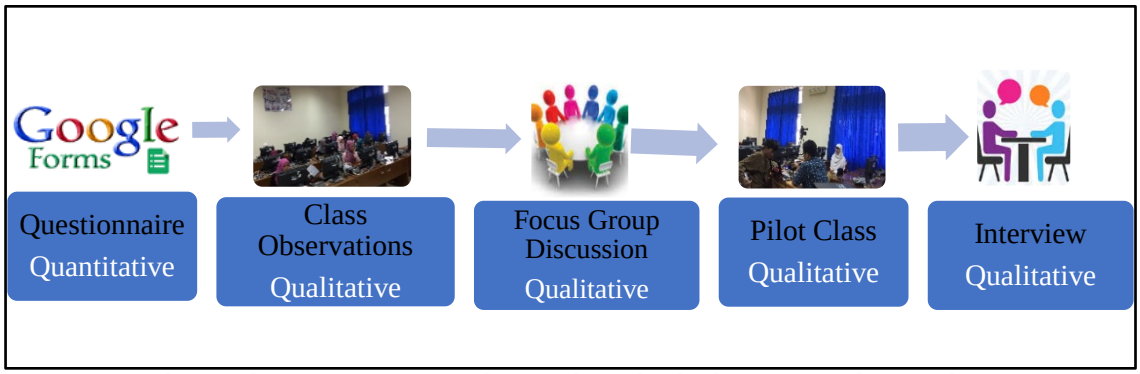

Figure 3.6 The explanatory sequential mixed methods design in Pilot Study stage

Five data collection techniques were administered sequentially in the pilot study (Figure 3.6). The quantitative results were obtained from the questionnaire followed by the qualitative data from the classroom observations. The two results were then used to modify the previously prepared question items used in the focus group discussions. The results from both was then combined to design as the materials for the activities and tasks used in the pilot project class and also for the discussions with the lecturers in one-to-one interviews.

The experience gained and the results from the pilot study led to the adjustments of the instruments used in the main study. These are summarised in Table 3.19.

Table 3.19 Adjustment of the instruments

Instruments	Pilot Study	Main Study
Online Questionnaire	Students: 79 Item (38 Students) Lectures: 5 Items (5 Lecturers)	Students 14 Closed-Ended Items
Focus Group Discussion	Students	Students
Interview	5 Lecturers	11 Lecturers
Classroom Observation	Writing Modules 2 Classes of Year 2 1 Class of a Pilot Class (n = 11 students)	Writing Modules Year 1: 2 Classes, 3 meetings Year 2: 2 Classes, 3 meetings Year 3: 2 Classes, 1 meetings
Documents	News Writing Scripts	Module Writing Scores: Assignment Mid-Term Test Final Term Test Final Grade

Table 3.19 presents the changes from the pilot to the main study. The changes to the questionnaire were made based on the finding from the pilot tests. To improve the questionnaire for the main study, validity and reliability tests were also conducted in the SPSS. The number of items in the online students' questionnaire were reduced based on the results of the reliability test. The students' questionnaires included self-reporting on their motivation and attitude towards learning. The questionnaire was designed based on three different samples on motivation, e.g., Gardner called this the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMBT), and two questionnaires on motivation from Weger-Guntharp (2008) and Sayadian and Lashkarian (2010). The questionnaire in the pilot study consisted of seventy-seven items and the interview questions were designed based on the results of the questionnaire. Validity and reliability tests were run in SPSS concerning the implications for the main study.

1. Those items with a significance level of less than .50 were treated as not valid and were excluded from the main study questionnaires.
2. Based on the reliability check, question items with a coefficient alpha of less than .70, were eliminated from the main study questionnaires
3. Overlapping questions were eliminated.

4. Students were requested to rank their motivation level regarding how high they believed their motivation was from 1 to 7 rather than choosing their preference on the Likert scale.
5. The lecturers' questionnaire was eliminated and optimised in the interview session in the main study.
6. The number of FGDs were increased to ten FGDs.
7. Video recording the classes were eliminated. The class observations were conducted in several different classes. They involved direct and indirect observation. The direct observation was done by the researcher herself by noting down the interaction and things that happened in the classrooms. This observation was conducted by following the observation guideline from Dörnyei's MOLT scheme (Motivation Orientation in Language Teaching). First, random observation in the English writing classes at the institution was conducted to gain a general description of the way writing was taught at the institution. These observations were purely conducted as an outsider observation. Second, the specific observation was conducted in the pilot class. However, in this pilot class, the researcher acted as both the lecturer and a researcher. There were two types of class observations in three different classes: two writing classes and one Pilot Class.
8. No more experimental design and broadcasting related writing tasks as it was in the pilot stage (the Pilot Class).
9. Interviews with teachers were conducted based on the statistical results of the online questionnaire.
10. The documents to analyse were added (the academic records of the students).

3.12 Validity and reliability

The validity and reliability of this study were evaluated. Validity is the extent to which the research results answered the questions and concerns that it set out to solve. Data from a number of sources were merged during the analysis. Both data and methodological triangulations were used to maintain its construct validity (Silverman, 2014).

The techniques used to collect, analyse, and interpret the data were clearly defined, so other researchers will be able to replicate the work in future. This study is therefore reliable. Several authors discussed methods to ensure the validity and reliability of research similar to the present study. Among these are Bazeley (2013), Creswell (2011), Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), Nunan (1992), Tavakol and Dennick (2011), and (Yin, 2014).

Researchers need to make their perspectives and questions explicit to ensure the credibility of the interpretation and thus increase the consistency of the coding (Bazeley, 2013). According to Bazeley (2013), employing multiple coders and checking for inter-coder and intracoder agreement on coding were more recommended for longitudinal and or team project and qualitative software can also be helpful in checking for the reliability of coding. Checking the intercoder agreement on NVivo can help researchers to ensure the reliability of the coding. As this study was not a longitudinal study nor team research, the reliability of the coding focused on the consistency of the coding process. The consistency of the coding used in this study was cross-checked by a qualified individual from another university who also conducted similar research (Silverman, 2014). The standard of the inter-coder reliability was 78% in agreement, which is considered “good” (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The researcher also reviewed and revised the coding and referred to her conceptual framework before drawing conclusions. This study passed this standard.

Some mixed methods researchers have rejected the issue of validity because of its overuse, being meaningless, or because validity is more quantitative than qualitative (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). However, validity is defined as operating strategies that address potential issues. Moreover, it was suggested that researchers need to compromise the merging or to connect the qualitative and quantitative strands of the study and the conclusions drawn from the combination in every stage of the research from data collection to the conclusion making. This study has attempted to do as suggested.

Moreover, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) recommended using the statistical procedures or external experts to measure the validity of the quantitative findings. Quantitative validity relates to the scores that the participants received. These scores need to be checked whether they are meaningful indicators to the construct that are being measured. It can be done through content validity, criterion-validity, or construct validity. The content validity refers to how someone assesses whether the items or

questions are representative of possible items. The research instruments are the part that is being checked for this first type of validity. As has been explored, each instrument was chosen in light of the research questions. The questionnaire was chosen based on the researcher's paradigm. Since she believed that personal voices from the participants are valuable, she considered that students were a valid information source to get to know their motivation for studying English at the vocational institution. The questionnaire was combined with FGD with students and interviews with their lecturers and this was the basis of the content validity of the study. The researcher had discussed her instruments with other researchers from the same field and from a different field to ascertain the external validity. Lastly, the construct validity referred to whether the test measures measured what they were supposed to and whether they were consistent with the results from previous findings. This validity for transcriptions of the FGDs and interviews were checked by the researcher's colleagues in *PNP (internal)*, and another research in Applied Linguistics from a different university (external).

According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), to check for validity and reliability of a questionnaire result, Cronbach's Alpha should be counted. Alpha was named after Lee Cronbach. It is used to measure the internal consistency of a test or scale; it is expressed as a number between 0 and 1. For the questionnaire results, the researcher ran a reliability test on her designed questionnaire at the pilot testing stage. Based on the pilot study results, she had revised the questionnaire and reduced the items from 79 to 14. However, the questionnaire was then revised completely following the changes of situation and teaching policy at the targeted case institution. The questionnaire was then redesigned following the results of observation on four classes of Year 1 and Year 2. In the results, the questionnaire was administered for only fourteen closed-ended questions and one open-ended question. This reliability test was run through the reliability test on SPSS 23. This test was run following the procedure of "analyse-scale-reliability test". The results were negative and low. A Cronbach Alpha analysis was done to find out why such results were produced. It was discovered that there were changes in the total number of the questionnaires' respondents and the items' responses. First, when the questionnaire was tested only on the results of Year 1 students, it turned out to be lower than the result of the whole population (Year 1, 2 and 3). Second, there were two questionnaire items which used a reverse scale. In order to meet the reliability condition, the researcher designed the qualitative data collection procedure concerning the issue of participant error, participant bias, and researcher error. In sequence, the participant error was anticipated. Lastly, the researcher error was overcome. The

attempt to acquire reliability was done using a case study protocol and by developing a case study database.

Internal validation was ensured through pattern matching, explanation building, considering alternative explanations, and using logical models (Yin, 2014). It was thus a valid study. Yin (2014) suggested using six sources of evidence: documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant-observation, and physical artefacts. Details on each source of evidence have been described above in the subsections about instruments. The use of multiple sources of evidence also aids triangulation and this allows the researcher to draw a more accurate conclusion (Yin, 2014).

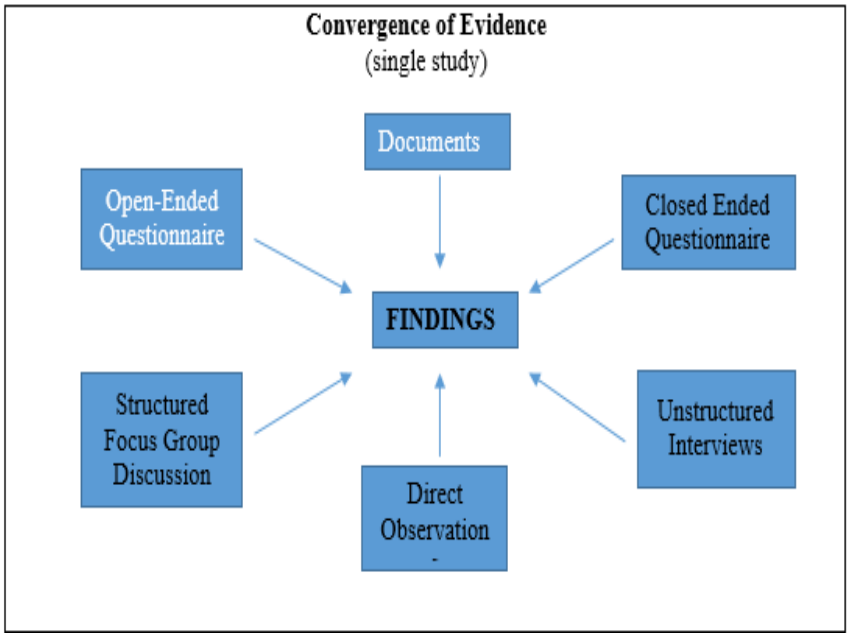

Figure 3.7 Convergence of evidence

As shown in Figure 3.7, this study ensured its internal validity by using a logical model in order to draw an accurate conclusion (Yin, 2014). The potential threats to validity that this poses, and the strategies employed to minimise these risks are listed in Table 3.20.

Table 3.20 Potential validity threats and strategies when merging data in concurrent convergent, embedded, transformative, and multiphase designs by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, p. 240-241)

Potential validity threats when merging data	Strategies for minimizing the threat
Data collection issues	
Selecting inappropriate individuals for the qualitative and quantitative data collection	Draw qualitative and quantitative samples from the same population to make data comparable.
Obtaining unequal sample sizes for the qualitative and quantitative data collection	Use large qualitative samples or small quantitative samples so that the same number of cases can be selected.
Introducing potential bias through one data collection on the other data collection (adding qualitative data into a trial while the trial is going on)	Use separate data collection procedures and collect data at the end of an experiment.
Collecting two types of data that do not address the same topics	Address the same question (parallel) in both qualitative and quantitative data collection.
Data analysis issues	
Using inadequate approaches to converge the data (e.g., uninterpretable display)	Develop a join display wit quantitative categorical data and qualitative themes or use other display configurations.
Making illogical comparisons of the two results of analysis	Find quotes that match the statistical results.
Utilizing inadequate data transformation approaches	Keep the transformations straightforward (e.g., count codes or themes), and use procedures to enhance reliability and validity of transformed scores.
Using inappropriate statistics to analyse quantitised qualitative results	Examine the distribution scores, and consider use of nonparametric statistics, if needed.
Interpretation issues	
Not resolving divergent findings	Use strategies such as gathering more data, reanalysing the current data, and evaluating the procedures.
Not discussing the mixed methods research questions	Address each mixed methods question.
Giving more weight to one form of data than the other	Use procedures to present both set of results in an equal way (e.g., join display) or provide a rationale for why one form of data provided a better of the problem.
Not interpreting the mixed methods results in light of advocacy or social science lens	Return in the interpretation of a transformative study to lens used in the beginning of the study and advance a call for action based on the results.
Not relating the stages or projects in a multiphase study to each other	Consider how a problem, a theory, or a lens might be an overarching way to connect the stages or projects.
Irreconcilable differences among different researchers on a team	Have researchers on a team evaluate the overall projects objectives and negotiate philosophical and methodological differences.

3.13 Summary

In this chapter the methodological elements of the study were set out. These include the philosophical paradigm, strategies of inquiry, research questions, ethical procedures,

data collection and analysis methods, as well as changes made as a result of the pilot study. In the end, it has also explained the validity and reliability of the study that indicated the results are valid and reliable.

This chapter aims to demonstrate that the research methods have been well-planned and well-designed to serve the aims of this research. However, as I have indicated, the situation in the fieldwork context required some inevitable amendments. As pragmatism was adopted as the research paradigm, the possibilities to revise the instruments and procedure was made possible and has been explained and justified. It is, therefore, considered as one of the weaknesses of this research that might be explored and considered by other researchers who wish to conduct studies on a similar research context. As the research design follows an explanatory concurrent mixed methods model, the overall aim was to collect the qualitative data through FGD with students and interview with lecturers.

Following this chapter, chapters 4 and 5 report the findings and discussion relevant to the themes of the research and are presented in a separate chapter.

CHAPTER 4
MOTIVATION TO STUDY ENGLISH IN VOCATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

4.1 Introduction

As explained in Chapter 1, motivation might be a factor in improving EFL learning in Indonesia (First, 2012; Hamied, 2012; Panggabean, 2007), particularly in the vocational higher education context. Studies suggest that Indonesian students have poor English skills (e.g., A1-Basic level of the CERF) because of a lack of English learning motivation. This suggests a link may exist between motivation and English learning performance especially in writing. Combining TBLT and technology-mediated learning is proposed as an area worthy of investigation in this study in order to understand in what ways this may offer a solution to improve motivation and writing skills. This study, therefore, set out with the aim of assessing students' perceptions regarding their motivation to learn English writing skills and their experience of engaging in task-based learning utilising digital technologies. This first chapter of findings and discussion, therefore, explores the first research question (RQ1: How do Indonesian EFL students' perceptions about motivation to learn English writing skills reflect their experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom?).

Findings arising from data collection involving a student questionnaire from six different writing classes (125 respondents), eight focus group discussions (FGD) with forty-seven students from three-year groups and two FGD with twelve students who were about to graduate, and fourteen classroom observations are explored in the first section. As the study was designed to observe general English learning motivation in the institution without looking at the differences between the year groups, the findings are not grouped. This study acknowledges that changes in motivation between groups might have occurred and that this may be an important factor worthy of investigation in future studies. These group differences, however, are not covered in this study, given the time and space limitations required to explore this topic thoroughly. This format has been made to meet the aims of the research, namely, to observe the relationship between motivation and the use of technology-mediated TBL in general without differentiating learners according to their year of study. Following the pragmatism paradigm, only relevant data are reported and discussed to answer RQ1. The discussion that follows the findings (Section 4.3) then explores related studies to help the writer analyse the answer

to RQ1. Finally, as a link to the next chapter which explores the factors that affect students in their learning, a summary of the chapter is presented in section 4.4.

4. 2 Findings

The first section of the findings (Section 4.2) covers English learning motivation (Section 4.2.1). Then, the findings on technology-mediated TBL are reported in Section 4.2.2. At the end of the section, the relationship between motivation and the experience is reported in Section 4.2.3 followed by the qualitative findings in Section 4.2.4.

4.2.1 English Learning Motivation (ELM)

Motivation was explored in Part 1 of the online questionnaire (see Appendix 3). The finding on this issue derived from questionnaire Part 1. Based on five years of experience in teaching at the institution, the lecturer participants identified different reasons for liking English and enrolling in the English Department at the institution. The general knowledge in the PNP was that there are many students who liked English and had an intermediate level of English proficiency and who chose to study in certain favoured departments, such as the Accounting or Civil Engineering Department in the polytechnic. On the other hand, the English Department students were those who did not pass the entrance examinations and were thus not able to enter those departments. Consequently, students enrolled in the English department had lower English proficiency than those enrolled in the other departments. Therefore, this difference was recorded separately in items 1 (motivation to learn English) and 2 (the motivation to enrol in the English Department), so that both could be analysed separately.

Both the results from the questionnaire and the FGD recorded high levels of motivation for learning English. As the study was not longitudinal, the quantitative data were only collected once during the semester. The answer to Item 1 was designed on a Likert scale from one to six to record the results from the lowest to the highest level of motivation. Surprisingly, high motivation was reported.

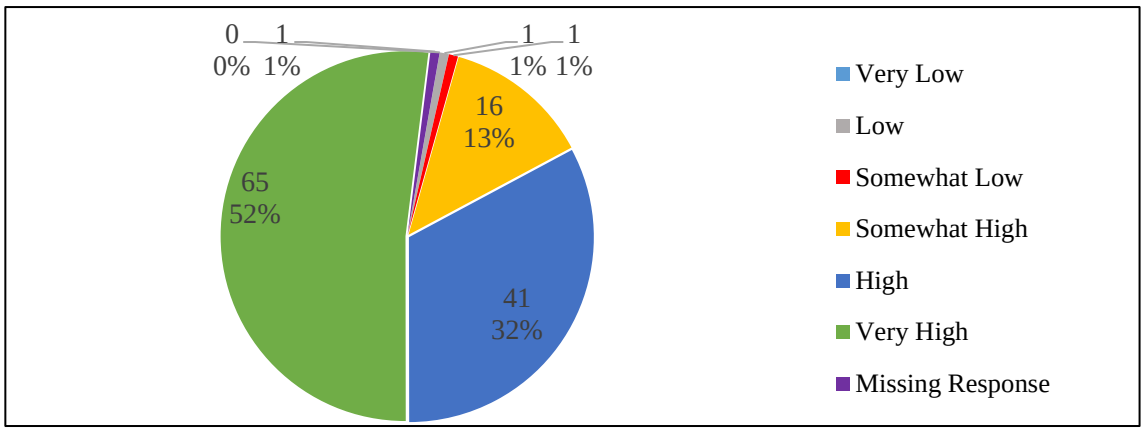

Figure 4.1 Item 1 (Willingness to learn English)

As shown in Figure 4.1, students from each year indicated that they had a high level of motivation, ranging from "somewhat high" to "high" and "very high". 65 out of 125 students (52%) reported having a very high willingness to learn English. This fact was also supported by the reason for choosing to study in the department as indicated in Figure 4.2

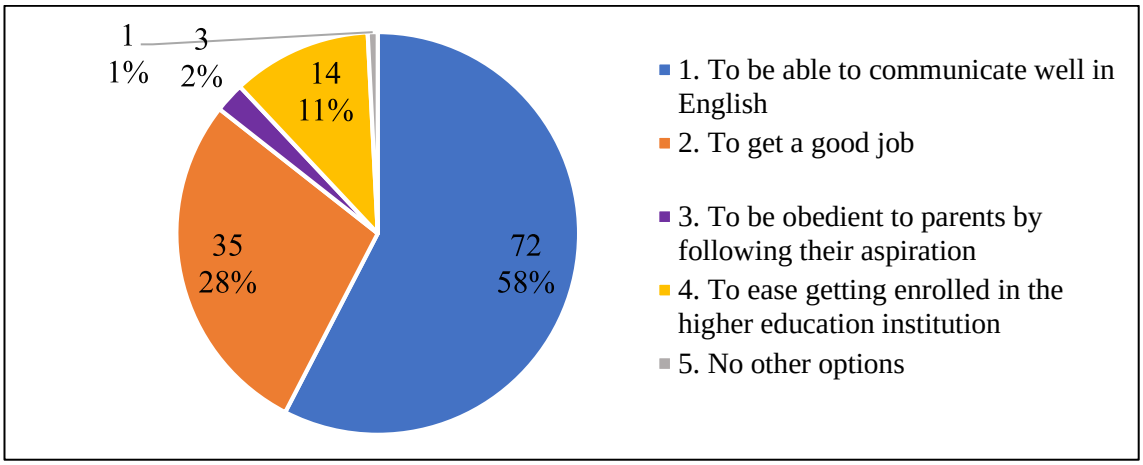

Figure 4.2 Item 2 (My main reason for choosing the English Department)

Figure 4.2 shows that the majority of students responded that they wanted to be able to communicate well in English (58%). The second highest response rate recorded was for option 2. 28% of students reported choosing to study in the department in order to get a good job.

It is important to look at the qualitative results about the students' reasons for studying English in addition to the focus group discussions as different reasons for learning English and enrolling in the English Department were also identified. The results from eight FGDs are summarised in Table 4.1

Table 4.1 FGD results - Reasons for English learning

Instrument	**No of Students**	**Responses**								
		Love everything about English	Dislike English and favour other subjects	Job	Parents/Other persons	Academic	Travelling	Communicate with the world	Hobby	Social Status
FGD1	6	1	0	4	1	2	1	0	0	0
FGD2	5	3	0	2	2	0	1	1	1	0
FGD3	6	3	0	5	2	0	1	1	0	0
FGD4	8	1	4	2	5	1	0	0	0	0
FGD5	5	2	0	3	5	0	2	1	1	1
FGD6	5	0	1	4	0	1	0	0	0	0
FGD7	6	0	1	6	2	1	0	0	0	0
FGD8	6	2	1	1	4	0	1	0	0	0
Total	47	12	7	27	21	5	6	3	2	1
	100%	26%	15%	57%	45%	11%	13%	6%	4%	2%

Table 4.1 presents the FGD results relating to the reasons why the students enrolled in the department. In contrast to the second quantitative results, 57% of students mentioned job oriented-reasons as their motivation for learning English. Furthermore, 45% of the students reported that they chose the English Department because of the influence of other people or for the reason that they wanted to make their important persons (e.g., parents, siblings, uncles, or previous teachers) happy. Because her mother was an English teacher, Desi (FGD 5, Classes 1B), for example, decided to study English to make her proud of her. Sarinah, Mutiara, and Dony (FGD 8, Classes 3A and B) reported that their sisters were their reason as they observed an interesting learning experience that their sisters went through during their study in other English Departments. Furthermore, having a father who was a mixed Indonesian -Indian and used to speak English made Anis (FGD 8) want to study English. Thus, after failing to enrol in a Communication School through national university entrance examinations, he decided to study English at the English Department at the *PNP* as it offered a broadcasting-related English course. Therefore, he could still learn at least part of the subject area that he liked.

There were two interesting findings identified from the FGDs: mixed reasons for liking English and having no personal interest in English. Firstly, no students reported liking English as their only reason for learning English. 26% of the students who liked English also reported their mixed reasons for learning English. Matlal, the only student who reported liking everything about English since he was a child, indicated having five reasons for learning English. Even though multiple reasons were reported, Matlal did not show a positive attitude toward English learning. He appeared to be sleeping in the class as recorded in all three observation notes from Class 1B.

Secondly, 15% of the students disliked English and preferred to study in other non-English Departments (e.g., Accounting, Computer Engineering, and Business Administration). Unfortunately, they did not pass the entrance examination for those departments (see Section 4.2.1). Surprisingly, a student from FGD 4 reported disliking English since she was at school, but she had to choose the English Department and studied the subject that she did not like. Tari from Class 2B reported:

> Then they recommended me to choose a major and asked me which major I was interested in. Because there was the Head of the English Department and the Head of the Business Administration, they

> suggested me to choose either one. They recommended me to choose English because of future prospects.
>
> (Tari, FGD 4, Class 2B)

Tari explained that she chose to enrol at the department based on an external suggestion. Both the Heads of the Business Administration and the English Departments approached her to choose their departments. On their visit to her residence, she was recommended to choose the English Department. She was also convinced that it would be good for financial reasons during her study period. Tari enrolled and had been studying for three semesters without having confidence in her abilities as she noted in the same discussion session. Her lack of confidence and limited proficiency were very obvious during the discussion session and the classroom observations (Observations 2A.1, 2, and 3). As a result of the financial motivation, English was seen as a way to secure a good job in the future. This finding was not unexpected. Throughout my experience in teaching at the institution, I had recorded several cases in which students continued to study only for the sake of having enrolled at a higher education institution. This was reported, for example, by Olga (FGD 1), Neliza (FGD 2), Danang and Rahmat (FGD 4), Yoga (FGD 7), and Anis (FGD 8).

Moving on now to consider the results of twelve classroom observations. A summary of the observation is presented in Table 4.2 and indicated a contrasting finding between the questionnaire results and the classroom observations.

Table 4.2 Classroom observation summary

Class	Learners' Motivated Behaviour		
	Attention	Participation	Volunteering
1A	• Divided attention	• Dominated by the same students	• Dominated by the same student but the lecturer took control to enable other students to participate
1B	• Attentive activities	• Dominated by the same students • Active in getting access to different resources and the lecturers	• Dominated by the same student but the lecturer took control to enable other students to participate
2A	• Divided attention	• Dominated by the same students	• Lack of volunteering
2B	• Divided Attention	• Dominated by the same students	• Lecturer regulated the volunteering but students indicated a willingness to volunteer

Table 4.2 records differences in the students' reflected motivational behaviour in six different classrooms during twelve classroom observations. Students responded differently following the way the lecturers conducted the classes. Attention, participation and volunteering varied. Both classes paid attention to the lecturers' instructions. However, students' attention in Class 1A was rather unfocused. Some were busy with their monitors while other students paid attention to the lecturers' explanation. In comparison, the attention during the pre-task session in Class 1B was focused. Students listened to and read from the same resources when the lecturer guided them to read a writing sample together from the screen projector.

Even though both classes in the Year 2 groups used PCs in their learning, they had differences in their motivational behaviour. Students from Class 2B paid more attention in the three task-based cycles compared to those in Class 2A. It was recorded from the interview with their lecturers that the lecturers had different styles in terms of the way they talked to and provided feedback and responses to the students as recorded in the FGD 3. Two female students reported their disappointment over the way their lecturers responded to their lack of English ability. Moreover, it was also noted that both lecturers in Class 2B had more control over the class and were able to win the students' attention through their way of interacting with the students. The teaching was also more interesting. It was noted from the classroom observation records that Mrs Rokhayati was the favourite among three lecturers who taught the Writing 1 classes with Year 1 groups. It was recorded in the observation records that the majority of the students sought her attention and assistance and avoided the other two lecturers. Mrs Fadhila Taslim was the only lecturer among the four lecturers teaching in two Technical Writing 1 classes who were able to win the attention and had control over the class. Four different lecturers taught these classes. Therefore, no input about the differences in students' ability and motivation from the lecturers' point of view was able to confirm the results of the observations. This was because not all of the lecturers from this class participated in the interview and they did not voluntarily discuss this point.

Crosschecking was done with one of the three lecturers who taught Classes 1A and 1B. Since one of the lecturers was responsible for both Classes 1A and 1B, detailed information was gathered. The lecturer (Mrs Hasanah Basri, reported by her pseudonym) justified the active participation and volunteering which took place in Class 1B. According to Mrs Hasanah (note, Indonesians are addressed by their first name

only), the active nature of the class reflected a higher intensity of motivation among its members, a fact that was supported by their English proficiency levels. She reported the students in Class 1B had higher scores compared to those in Class 1A. The observation notes also recorded that students in Class 1B were more active in looking at and using different tools (not only Google Translate and online and offline dictionaries but also other specific Indonesian dictionary applications, YouTube channels and websites) in completing their writing tasks. Moreover, the majority of students in Class 1A used Google Translate. Meanwhile, students in Class 1B used a greater variety of tools, including printed dictionaries (further discussion on tools for completing the writing tasks is discussed in Chapter 5).

Students' participation and volunteering were mostly similar in each class. The same students dominated participation and volunteering in class. However, it was recorded that the second lecturer in Class 1B, Mrs Rokhayati, handled the situation well. Her way of talking was audible to the group and full of confidence. She distributed opportunities for students to talk and volunteer answers authoritatively. It created assurance in the eyes of the students, and they were clear about whose turn it was to talk, what to do and how to do things. Students seemed to engage in their task better compared to the way the second lecturer in class 1A involved the students in the task cycles. Even though Mrs Hasanah taught both classes in Year 1 groups of Writing 1, her control over the classes was not as good as Mrs Rokhayati. Mrs Rokhayati was the one who controlled the participation and volunteering activities in the class. In the other Year 1 group, Mrs Hasanah took over the role. Mrs Hasanah taught both classes while Mrs Rina Yulitri, the second lecturer for Writing 1 classes, appeared to be the least able at creating an interesting and engaging technology-mediated TBL writing class. It was obvious that Mrs Rina did not have sufficient skills in technology literacy and it contributed to students' reluctance to ask her for further assistance. Therefore, they were not always able to obtain encouragement to work on their writing tasks.

For the Year 2 groups, Mrs Fadhila Taslim was active in walking around the classes and engaged with her students throughout each lesson. This was not observable in the conduct of the other three lecturers of the Year 2 groups. Therefore, domination in participating and volunteering in her class could be minimised. However, the class became chaotic when the feedback session took place. The first session of the task cycle seemed to be dull, but the feedback session was very stimulating. Students in the non-

Edmodo-based class became active and walked around the classroom approaching their peers and lecturers to obtain feedback and to question the feedback that they received. Meanwhile, students from the Edmodo-based classes demonstrated curiosity and made sure that their classmates responded to their writing. They talked to each other and reminding each other of their roles as feedback providers. The students in Class 1B became uncontrollable as their only access was on the physical portfolio, their handwriting books. They had to take it in person to the feedback providers. They walked and talked freely to each other and to lecturers to obtain feedback. Physical movements and noise dominated the end of the second task cycle. This situation did not happen in classes 1A, 2A and 2B because Web 2.0, the Edmodo learning platform, facilitated their learning process in this case. It was obvious that the lecturers' confidence, control and technological skills contributed to the students' engagement and motivation in the technology-mediated TBL process.

Students' English learning motivation was driven by non-language and cultural-related motives, and thus their motivation was not reflected during their classroom interaction. Enthusiasm for completing their writing within the time limit was not observed. However, their willingness indicated by their effort to approach the lecturers by walking and queuing to obtain a turn to receive feedback from their lecturers at the end of the task cycles was rather high compared to their motivation in working on the main task. Therefore, this study concludes that the very high levels of motivation reported on the online questionnaire Item 1 did not reflect the students' actual learning in the classroom based on observation data.

Having discussed the motivation aspects of learning English in the English Department from the student perspective, the next section will report the findings with respect to students' experience in technology-mediated task-based learning.

4.2.2 Technology-mediated TBL experience

This part describes students' perceptions gathered from focus group discussions (FGD) and interviews with the lecturers. Class 1A was introduced to the use of computers and the internet, while Class 1B used only pens, pencils, paper and printed resources, such as dictionaries and handouts, and both Classes 2A and 2B used PCs and Edmodo as their e-learning platform.

The majority of students found learning writing skills challenging. As they found it harder, it risked impacting on their learning motivation as evidenced in the FGDs. It was evident from Budi's statement "I think that for making an essay [it] is too hard" (FGD 6, Class 2A). Baskoro did not specify the reason for saying why essay writing was very hard for him. Based on observation of how the students completed their writing tasks, it was obvious that their limited English vocabulary was the reason why it took a long time. Knowing that they had limited time and that they needed to catch up in order to continue to the next stage of the task cycle affected the learning. Less motivated students might be affected negatively. Baskoro also reported the same opinion "So, I think it's hard for me to write!" (FGD 7, Class 2A). Both students stated that writing is a challenging subject to learn. In contrast, a student from Class 1A, who enjoyed the use of technology to facilitate her learning, described the situation differently. Olga from FGD 1 of Class 1A mentioned that posting and responding to comments on the Edmodo wall helped her to practise her English. Enthusiastically, she said "And, yes! There are many things we can practise our English with the technology, actually by using Edmodo" (Olga, FGD 1, Class 1A). From this extract, it is evident that Olga showed her enthusiasm and preference for the use of technology, in particular, the use of Edmodo. She found the use of written interaction as a process that led to improvements in her English writing skills.

Similarly, Matlal from Class 1B reported that he was motivated by the use of Edmodo to help create his portfolio:

> Yes! That makes our job easy. And we do not feel tired too. With something, or making our task, maybe we can use the computer, Microsoft Word. And if we write it manually with the pencil, it is many tasks for us. We feel tired, so, if we are tired, maybe we become less motivated to learn again.
>
> (Matlal, FGD 5, Class 1B)

As is evident from Matlal's response, he was motivated to complete his writing tasks due to a technical issue, namely, getting his hands and eyes tired by writing manually. He found that learning English writing skills with technology helpful in maintaining his learning motivation. This response was mentioned by a student who had been motivated to learn English since he was a child. He also identified four further reasons for learning English, namely, to get a job, his father's encouragement, his willingness to communicate with the world community, and because it was his hobby.

The main lecturer of the Writing 1 module described an improvement in her students' motivation to learn in her writing classes:

> In general, I can see the pattern and then each year, their English is much better. And then their motivation is also, they have a better motivation than their senior[s]. And especially in using the technology [Edmodo] in the classroom. So, I can see in their comment[s] in Edmodo because I use Edmodo in my classroom. They, they are quite interested in using this tool. We can see that, I can see that from the comment in Edmodo... That's why I think their motivation in learning English becomes improved and it shows in their enthusiasm in the classroom and also in using Edmodo.
>
> (Interview with Lecturer, Mrs Hasanah Basri)

The main lecturer of Writing 1 module reported that she used Edmodo as an e-portfolio and classroom management system for motivating students to use English and found it effective. Another significant extract also supported the lecturer's statement about the effect of technology-mediated learning to her students in writing classes. It was confirmed that Mrs Hasanah found changes in students' motivation to do writing tasks when students were given options for using computers and internet access. This finding was also confirmed by another lecturer from Class 2B who stated that her students became more motivated when she asked them to submit their tasks. Her students became aware of the time limit for submission as she used the Edmodo assignment feature which locked the submission as scheduled:

> So, there is a kind of 'hey, there is a due date!' so that means that they have to learn how to do it because they just depend on their friend and they learn it and then they know how to do it and they insert the performance in the Edmodo wall and they also can turn it on, operate it, play it. When they play it, they can see their own performance, right? And they can say 'Oh, this is not good! I don't like this part!' and make them delete the one that they have submitted and do another one and then play again in Edmodo until they're satisfied and then finally submitted it. So, I think one of the technology, I mean using Edmodo, is really good for motivating student.
>
> (An Interview with Lecturer, Mrs Diana Wulandari)

The lecturer, who used to teach speaking modules stated that the use of Edmodo in learning English writing skills in the English Department of the *PNP* was motivating for her students, indicated that this was due to the improved discipline that she assigned to the Edmodo task submission process. She found her students became more encouraged to do and submit their tasks on time as a result. The male lecturer also reported how the use of technology affected his students' motivation as it influenced the students' enthusiasm:

> I can see they're more motivated, they are more enthusiastic in the class. For example, last time we are discussing a famous advertisement, and this is what is the real message about the advertisement and then they get enthusiastic because they want to give their opinion.
>
> (An Interview with Lecturer, Mr Zayadi Nur)

Mr Zayadi noticed the enthusiasm the students demonstrated in working on their tasks when he implemented the technology-based activities.

Having reported the findings from FGDs and interviews, this subsection now moves onto report the comparison between motivation and the students' scores, focusing on module assessments that consisted of students' scores on their assignment for the entire semester, mid-semester scores, final semester scores, and their final scores for the modules. A summary of the descriptive statistics used in the scorings collected from the document in the department through the institution's website portal is recorded in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Summary of the descriptive statistics of the academic achievement for 3-year groups

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
TOEIC 1	92	115	770	340.36	125.138
TOEIC 2	44	195	910	441.93	145.823
TOEIC Diff	44	-70	380	71.30	90.575
Assignment Score	124	60	85	76.89	4.916
Mid-Test Score	125	60	95	77.71	7.206
Semester-Test Score	125	45	95	77.98	7.538
Final Score	125	52	89	77.67	5.662
Valid N (listwise)	44				

As summarised in Table 4.3, there were four scores that students received after studying for a semester in two writing modules (Writing 1 and Technical Writing 1). The highest score was 85 for the Assignment Scores and the Semester-Test Scores (M = 77.98, SD = 7.206). First, the assignment scores ranged between 60 and 80.

Table 4.4 Cross tabulation between Assignment Scores and classes

		Classes by Year						Total	
		1A	1B	2A	2B	3A	3B		
Assignment Score	60	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1%
	65	0	2	1	0	0	0	3	2%
	68	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1%
	70	8	2	2	0	0	8	20	16%
	75	6	0	1	7	7	3	24	19%
	76	0	1	0	2	0	0	3	2%
	77	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1%
	78	4	4	0	4	0	0	12	10%
	80	2	17	8	13	6	3	49	39%
	85	0	0	7	0	0	3	10	8%
	Missing	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1%
Total		22	26	20	26	14	17	125	100%

Table 4.4 shows the assignments scores that students received for their writing tasks for the whole semester. 39% of students received 80 as the highest assignment scores. The second highest score was 75 (19%). Lastly, 16% of students received the third highest score of 70. These highest scores were similar in six classes of Year 1, 2, and 3. Meanwhile, the Mid-Test ranged between 60 to 95 as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Mid-Term Test Score

		Classes by Year						Total	
		1A	1B	2A	2B	3A	3B		
Mid-Test Score	60	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1%
	65	0	2	0	1	0	0	3	2%
	68	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	2%
	70	3	4	12	2	0	8	29	23%
	73	2	3	0	0	0	0	5	4%
	75	2	5	4	2	2	3	18	14%
	76	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	2%
	77	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1%
	78	1	2	0	0	0	0	3	2%
	80	4	3	3	1	7	3	21	17%
	82	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2%
	83	1	1	0	1	0	0	3	2%
	85	4	3	1	5	4	3	20	16%
	87	0	0	0	3	0	0	3	2%
	88	0	0	0	5	0	0	5	4%
	89	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	2%
	90	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1%
	95	0	0	0	3	0	0	3	2%
Total		22	26	20	26	14	17	125	100%

A different case was shown in Table 4.5 in terms of the achievement that students reached for their Mid-Term Test Scores which ranged between 60 and 95 points. Only one student, who was from Class 2B, received the highest score for a mid-term score

(85). Meanwhile, 23% of the students from these six classes received 70 for their Mid-Terms Scores. The Final Test Scores are summarised in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Semester-Test Score

		Classes by Year						Total	
		1A	1B	2A	2B	3A	3B		
Semester-Test Score	45	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1%
	60	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	2%
	65	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	2%
	66	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1%
	68	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1%
	70	6	1	5	2	0	7	21	17%
	72	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1%
	73	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	2%
	74	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1%
	75	6	2	0	6	1	3	18	14%
	76	1	2	0	0	0	0	3	2%
	77	0	2	0	1	0	0	3	2%
	78	1	5	0	1	0	0	7	6%
	80	3	5	5	4	3	3	23	18%
	81	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1%
	82	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	2%
	83	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	2%
	85	1	4	7	5	4	2	23	18%
	86	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1%
	90	0	0	2	3	3	0	8	6%
	95	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	2%
Total		22	26	20	26	14	17	125	58%

As indicated in Table 4.6, 18% of the students received both 80 and 85. In contrast with the assignment and mid-term test scores, two students from Class 3A achieved the highest score of 95.

Before proceeding to examine the correlations of this data, it is also important to observe the descriptive statistics of the final scores that students received from the writing modules.

Table 4.7 Final Scores

		Classes by Year						Total	
		1A	1B	2A	2B	3A	3B		
Final Score	52	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1%
	65	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1%
	67	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1%
	69	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	2%
	70	1	2	2	1	0	7	13	10%
	71	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1%
	72	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	2%
	73	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	2%
	74	4	3	1	2	0	0	10	8%
	75	1	2	0	0	1	2	6	5%
	76	3	1	2	2	0	1	9	7%
	77	1	6	5	1	0	0	13	10%
	78	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	2%
	79	0	3	0	2	3	0	8	6%
	80	2	5	1	5	1	3	17	14%
	81	0	0	4	1	1	1	7	6%
	82	0	2	1	0	1	0	4	3%
	83	1	0	0	2	0	0	3	2%
	84	0	1	1	3	0	0	5	4%
	85	0	0	2	1	2	2	7	6%
	86	0	0	0	2	1	0	3	2%
	87	0	0	0	3	1	0	4	3%
	89	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	2%
Total		22	26	20	26	14	17	125	100%

As can be seen in Table 4.7, the highest and lowest scores were also different from the other scores. They ranged from 52 to 89. 14% of students received 80 as the highest final score for the module.

As the Year 1 group was by nature divided into two classes that used different tools in their learning, Class 1A and 1B were used as samples for correlating motivation and academic achievement. The first finding recorded that students chose options 4, 5, and 6 (somewhat high motivation, high motivation, and very high motivation) as summarised in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Motivation in Year 1 case

		Motivation Level			Total
		Somewhat High	High	Very High	
Class	Year 1 A	2	8	12	22
		50%	47%	44%	46%
	Year 1 B	2	9	15	26
		50%	53%	56%	54%
Total		4	17	27	48
		100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 4.8 shows that 55.6% of 1B students and 44.4% of 1A students had very high motivation. However, this difference was not significant (X^2 = .059, df = 2; p > .05). Thus far, this thesis has described the descriptive findings from both student questionnaires and document analysis. Let us move onto the relationship between the variables.

4.2.3 The relationship between ELM and writing task completion in technology-mediated TBL

This subsection links the results from the quantitative findings and the qualitative results from the focus group discussions, interviews, and observations. Firstly, the correlation between students' reported level of motivation, technology, and their performance in task completion is presented by reporting the hypothesis and the inferential statistic findings. Then, the results are compared with the qualitative findings to draw a conclusion to answer RQ1.

There are two main hypotheses for this research question. The first one deals with the learning outcome (task-as-outcome) that will be measured by final scores in the writing modules. The second hypothesis deals with the task-in process; to measure task-in process, three variables (assignment, mid-term test, and semester test score) were used to correlate with the motivation level.

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant correlation between motivation and performances in writing classes as indicated by the final score in Writing 1 module.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference between the technology group that learned to write through the use of PCs and the non-PCs group.

Class 1A used the computer and Wi-Fi facilities in the multimedia language laboratory and Edmodo in their learning. Meanwhile, Class 1B was not allowed to use any computer equipment. Class 1B wrote, gave feedback to their peers and rewrote their writing tasks on a book that they referred to as a portfolio book. This was because they followed the department's policy. The classes had been assigned from the beginning of the semester. However, a year earlier, a pilot study had been conducted on the application of the technology-mediated TBL approach. There was a possibility that the pilot study was used by the department as an example to develop their teaching approach.

The first correlation reported in this section is between motivation levels from questionnaire result and variables from the class documents: assignments, mid-test, final test, and overall scores. Arising from the results from questionnaire item 1, the motivation level variable was correlated with the writing modules scores (assignment, mid-test, final test, and overall score). Because the data were not normally distributed (except for the Final Score variable), Kendal's Tau and Spearman's Rho for the non-parametric test were run (Field, 2013). The cut-off value for the significant values was .05 and in case that there were differences in the values between Kendal's Tau and Spearman's Rho, the more accurate gauge was set to the Kendal's Tau (Field, 2013). To check the answer for hypothesis 1 in this research question (**Hypothesis 1**: There is a significant correlation between motivation and performances in writing classes), the variables were correlated separately. The first association observed was between motivation and the learning outcomes: final scores in writing modules. In what follows I will look at the correlation between motivation and final scores first as general facts about the population because all classes had a final score variable. In this case, I was able to generate specific information for another research question dealing with a different treatment between the class that used PCs and the non-PC class in their study of writing through technology.

A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to determine the relationship between motivation and learning outcome (the Final Score). The first result for the correlation is recorded in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Correlation between Motivation and Final Scores

		Motivation Level	Final Score
Motivation Level	Pearson Correlation	1	.062
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.491
	N	124	124
Final Score	Pearson Correlation	.062	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.491	
	N	124	124

Table 4.9 shows the correlation between motivation level (variable 1) and the Final Scores that students received in the writing modules. There was a strong, positive correlation between the motivation level and the final scores. However, the correlation was not statistically significant ($r = - 0.74$, $n = 125$, $p = .410$). Therefore, it was concluded that there was no significant relationship between the final scores in Writing 1 and the motivation levels. This finding rejects the null hypothesis.

This section has reported the findings dealing with the correlation between motivation and "task-as outcome". It now moves onto report the findings on the correlation between motivation and *task-in-process*. Having said that there was no significant correlation between motivation level and the final score, I ran another correlation investigation on their learning (task-in-process) by looking at the assignment, mid-test, and semester test variables. The semester test was included in the "task-in-process" variable because the scores were derived from the students' writing progression during the semester. It was not from the sit-in examination results; the take-home examination was also in place as the students were given time to work on longer writing tasks as a result of better planning and opportunities for revision. When the correlation was observed based on the different treatments students received in their learning process, different findings were recorded. The first analysis was run without differentiating the classes based on the way students were taught. The following part describes the results of the analysis based on the different tools students used.

The section that follows reports the findings dealing with the correlation between motivation and assignment, mid-term test, and semester-test scores (task-in-process) by using bivariate correlations. Because the data for each score were not normally distributed, Spearman's Rho was used to analyse the associations. The findings are summarised in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Correlation between Motivation Level and Task-in Process Scores

			Motivation Level	Assignment Score	Mid-Test Score	Semester-Test Score
Spearman's rho	Motivation Level	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.108	.026	.069
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.236	.771	.449
		N	124	123	124	124
	Assignment Score	Correlation Coefficient	.108	1.000	.334**	.544**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.236		.000	.000
		N	123	124	124	124
	Mid-Test Score	Correlation Coefficient	.026	.334**	1.000	.464**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.771	.000		.000
		N	124	124	125	125
	Semester-Test Score	Correlation Coefficient	.069	.544**	.464**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.449	.000	.000	
		N	124	124	125	125

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen from Table 4.10, none of the three scores were statistically significant. All the significant levels were above .01. The assignment score had the strongest correlation coefficient (r = .108, p = .236). Meanwhile, the Mid-Test Scores were the lowest in terms of the correlation coefficient (r = .026, p = .771).

Despite these not statistically significant findings for the six classes observed, a closer look at different treatments for students in Year 1 was conducted. It was hypothesised that the utilisation of technology might affect the changes of motivation and writing proficiency (**Hypothesis 2**: There is a significant difference between the PC group that learned to write using technology and the non-PC one). A *t-test* was run to investigate whether these two classes were significantly different due to the use of technology in the process of learning. By nature, the institution had designed different treatments for teaching Writing 1 for two classes. Students in Class 1A (M = 74.59, SD = 3.850, n = 22) was assigned to the use of technology in their process of learning Writing 1 through task-based activities. Similarly, students of Class 1B (M = 77.42, SD = 3.384, n = 26) were also introduced to task-based writing activities. However, they were not allowed to use the facilities available in the Language Laboratory where they were studying. This group used their books and traditional writing tools, such as pens and pencils. A t-test was conducted to analyse the data, as reported in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Independent sample test

		Levine's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Final Score	Equal variances assumed	.394	.534	-2.712	46	.009	-2.832	1.044	-4.934	-.730
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.683	42.261	.010	-2.832	1.056	-4.962	-.702

Table 4.11 presents an overview of the *t-test* results. The t-test assumes that the standard deviations are the same (less than 4.0). $F = .394$ and the significant level of .534 was above significant level. Therefore, the Equal Variance Assumed was used to check for the *t*-value (-2.712) and the significant level was .009, which was ≥ .05. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted; the difference between the use of technology and non-technology in these two classes was significant. There was a significant relationship between having been exposed to technology and students' writing skills (t (46) = -2.712, $p < .05$).

A Kruskal-Wallis test was run to investigate whether having been exposed to the use of technology was significantly associated with the student's performance in writing classes as recorded in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Kruskal-Wallis results on Motivation and the Task-in Process variables

	Assignment Score	Mid-Term Test Score	Semester-Test Score	Final Score
Chi-Square	1.426	.511	.800	.957
df	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.490	.775	.670	.620

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: Motivation Level

From Table 4.12 we can see that there were no significant differences in the assignment, mid-term test, and semester-test scores between 'somewhat high', 'high', and 'very highly' motivated students. As recorded in Table 4.12, the assignment score was not significantly different for students of these three groups in terms of motivation levels $\chi2(2) = 1.426$, $p = .490$, with a mean rank of the Assignment Scores 17.00 for somewhat high, 25.85 for high and 24.76 for very highly motivated students. The second finding is that there was also no significant difference in the mid-term test scores $\chi2$ (2) = .511, p

= .775, with a mean rank assignment score of 19.75 for somewhat high, 25.03 for high and 24.87 for very highly motivated students. Moreover, the same finding was recorded on the semester-test score $\chi 2(2) = .957$, p = .620, with a mean rank assignment score of 19.25 for 'somewhat high', 23.44 for 'high', and 25.94 for 'very highly' motivated students.

There was no significant association between motivation levels, the task-in process (the assignment scores) and task-as-outcome variables. Moreover, the differences between two different groups of students that used different physical equipment were also not significant, as confirmed by the findings from the t-test and the Kruskal-Wallis Tests.

Furthermore, to investigate the differences between two independent groups (Class 1A and 1B), the Mann-Whitney U Test was administered. Results are presented in Table 4.13

Table 4.13 Mann-Whitney U Test results

	Assignment Score	Mid-Term Test Score	Semester-Test Score
Mann-Whitney U	118.000	243.000	130.000
Wilcoxon W	371.000	594.000	383.000
Z	-3.619	-.896	-3.253
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.370	.001

a. Grouping Variable: Class

As shown in Table 4.13, the assignment and semester-test scores reported significant differences compared to the mid-term test score between Classes 1A and 1B. The assignment scores in Class 1B were statistically significant and higher than the Class 1A ($U = 118$, $p = .000$) with a mean rank of the Assignment Scores 30.96 for 1B and 16.86 for 1A. The same findings were observed for the semester-test scores. Class 1B had a significant difference compared to 1A ($U = 130$, $p = .001$) with a mean rank Semester-Test Scores of 30.50 for 1B and 17.41 for Class 1A. In contrast, there were no significant differences between these two classes in the Mid-Term Test Scores ($U = 243$, $p = .370$). In addition, this variable also appeared to be having different results in a mean rank. While Class 1B had higher scores for Assignment and Semester-Test, Class 1A had higher scores in a mean rank of 26.45 for 1A and 22.85 for Class 1B.

To summarise, the first correlation analysis between motivation and task-as outcome (Final Scores) indicated a strong, positive correlation. However, a Pearson

product-moment correlation coefficient indicated that it was not statistically significant (r = - 0.74, n = 125, *p* = .410). For the relationship between motivation and *task-in-process* (writing skills), four variables were analysed, and the results were also not statistically significant. The first one relates to students' actual performance on task-based activities measured by their performance in doing their weekly writing tasks or assignments. The relationship between motivation and Assignment Scores was investigated using a Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient. Similarly, a weak positive correlation was detected (r= .108, *n*= 123, *p* = .236). Furthermore, a Spearman's product-moment correlation coefficient also indicated a weak relationship between motivation and Mid-Term Test Score (*r*= .026, *n*= 124, *p* = .771). This correlation was found weaker than the Assignment Scores' correlation. Thirdly, the same correlation test also showed a weak correlation between motivation and Semester Test Scores and this was also investigated using a Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient. However, it was stronger than the Mid-Term Test Scores (*r* = 069, n = 124, *p* =.449). The findings for the research question are summarised in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14 RQ1- Quantitative findings

	Hypotheses	Variables		Findings	Conclusion
1	H_0: there is a significant correlation between motivation and performances in writing classes.	1.1 Motivation and Task-in Process	1.1.1 Motivation and Assignment Score	Not significant (r = .108, p = .236)	Ho = Rejected
			1.1.2 Motivation and Mid-Test Score	Not significant (r = .026, p = .771)	Ho = Rejected
			1.1.3 Motivation and Semester Test Score	Not significant (r =.069, p = .449)	Ho = Rejected
	H_1: there is no significant correlation between motivation and performances in writing classes.	1.2 Task-as Outcomes	1.2.4 Motivation and Final Score	Not significant (r = - 0.74, n = 125, p = .410)	Ho = Rejected
2	H_0: there is a significant difference between the PC-based group and the non-PC-group.	2.1 There was an association between the use of technology and performance in Writing 1 module (t (46) = - 2.712, p < .05			Ho = Accepted
		2.2 There were no statistical differences between motivation level and task-in process (assignment, mid-test, and semester-test scores variables) and motivation level and the task-in process and task-as outcome (Final Score variable)			Ho = Accepted
	H_1: there is no significant difference between the PC-based group and the non-PC-group				

As presented in Table 4.14, the findings have helped to answer RQ1. First, there was no association between motivation and the task-in-process and task-as-outcomes. Secondly, the use of PC or non-PC (in Classes 1A and 1B) did not influence the

performance in writing classes. This section has covered the findings of the first research question. Next, the findings from the qualitative results are presented.

4.2.4 The qualitative findings

Three responses were extracted from focus group discussions (FGD). The first one is that motivation does not affect students' enthusiasm for working on their writing tasks. Students reported that access to sophisticated technology affected their willingness to complete their writing tasks. Secondly, a contrasting attitude toward the use of technology was emphasised. It was highlighted that there was agreement and disagreement on the use of internet technology as reported by the students in the FGDs. However, when options for stopping the use of internet access in working on writing tasks were suggested by the researcher during the FGDs, students opted for the technology-mediated learning. A student from Class 1A expressed how the use of technology could be a distraction: "for example, I am in the middle, someone in the right, I helped her with the writing tasks, but instead of working on the task, she was watching YouTube or other things. It does not really help" (Gita, FGD 1, Class 1A). As Gita described, the use of technology during classroom interaction was considered a distraction due to her lack of discipline. In this extract, Gita explained about the situation when she tried to help her classmate with the writing task, and she found that the person did not appreciate her assistance and used the technology provided for entertainment instead of doing the task. Gita reported that her classmate had a lack of discipline. However, a different opinion was expressed by her classmate, Halimah, to counter Gita's response:

> In my opinion, [the use of] technology for writing [class] and the writing itself are important. If [we] study writing conventionally, we have to bring printed dictionaries [and] write on paper. It is a hassle. It is modern time, if we bring printed dictionaries, they are very thick. It is not possible to carry it everywhere. It is better to use a mobile phone that has supporting applications.
>
> (Halimah, FGD 1, Class 1A)

Halimah disagreed that technology demotivated her in her learning in the writing class. According to Halimah, using technology in learning was important as it saved her from taking a heavy dictionary to school.

Two FGDs were conducted with students who were about to graduate to get to know what their experience of learning English for more than three years in the

institution had been. After three years of learning through tasks and technology-mediated learning, they emphasised that they liked the way they learnt. In contrast to the first-year students, the fourth-year students reported that the use of technology in their writing tasks activities helped them to work effectively.

As Gusti explained, she was motivated by the technology-mediated TBL approach in learning writing skills because "For the example, when we use the internet to translate some texts, we can search the related text that we need, and we can use a dictionary" (Gusti, FGD 9, Graduate 1). In this extract, Gusti mentioned that she was motivated to learn through doing tasks and using the computer technology helped her with the vocabulary searching and searching for information. Confirmation was sought in the transcript to find out whether Gusti meant to say that the use of ICT caused her difficulties to search for information on the internet. She confirmed that by using ICT in her learning, it eased her in searching for the information on the internet and it assisted her learning and completion of the tasks. A similar opinion was expressed by six students from the group Graduate 2. Wati explained:

> "because technology can help me to do my task and with task I can get more knowledge like I understand about what the lecturer teaches [and] the material from the lecturer [better]. And we use technology for our communication and for sharing some material also and it makes the learning process easy. So, I like doing a task with technology.
>
> (Wati, FGD 10, Graduate 2)

In addition, Yusni stated that doing tasks is more difficult. Yet she reported that it contributed more to her learning:

> But I think it is more difficult to [only] doing exercises because in learning process, we need to do a task and because by doing the task regularly, it can make us understand better about the material. We can practice and also understand what the lecturer [teach] and the material from the lecturer compared to doing exercises.
>
> (Yusni, FGD 10, Graduate 2)

A thorough list of reasons was expressed by Indah:

> I like learning with the task because in the task, the lecturer gives the examples before we do it and I think [the] example gives the benefit for our work and after that, we can correct our task with the lecturer. It is a benefit from learning through tasks and technology. When we make a mistake, we can improve our knowledge [from the mistake]. About my experience, I like [learning] the writing skill because like that! I like the way we learn through the example, do the task [based

> on the example given], correct the task, and get more benefit [from these cycle].
>
> (Indah, FGD 10, Graduate 2)

According to Indah, the series of tasks, getting examples, working on the writing task and revising it, provided her with advantages for her learning. Above all, Indah clearly stated that the use of technology-mediated TBLT was effective for her learning experience in improving her English writing skills: "Actually effective because after we do the task we correct with a friend, we use technology and I think it makes our work easier than use a book or pen, like that" (Indah, FGD 10, Graduate 2).

In relation to the effect of the use of computer technology in doing writing tasks, as reported by Matlal from Class 1B, the use of technology helped him to maintain his motivation. Matlal described that the use of the computer in his learning eased his work and prevented him from getting tired, which typically resulted in motivation loss. A similar response was expressed by Wanofri from Class 2 A. He mentioned that the use of Web 2.0 tools such as Edmodo improved his motivation and English competence:

> Yes. Edmodo improve my motivation because we have to write in English in Edmodo not use the Indonesian language. So, I like writing in English usually when we are talking in English. So that's why I thought Edmodo increases my skill in English.
>
> (Wanofri, FGD 7, Class 2A)

Wanofri from Class 2A clearly stated that his motivation was improved because he used Edmodo to complete his writing tasks as instructed by the lecturers (details about the use of Edmodo is covered in more detail in Chapter 5).

To conclude, the students indicated having a very high level of motivation for job-related reasons. The majority of them had instrumental motivation and a mix of instrumental and integrated motivation. The quantitative results of this study conclude that there is no significant correlation between the high level of motivation and performances in writing classes. Moreover, it was found that there was no significant difference between the PC-based group and the non-PC-group in terms of motivation level and assignment, mid-semester test, and final semester test scores in writing classes. The qualitative results indicated that students and their lecturers reported the use of technology and tasks in learning English writing skills contributed to the improvement of their motivation to study and to complete their writing. The differences in the quantitative and qualitative findings are explained by the nature of the data. The

qualitative findings were generated from the students' perspective. Meanwhile, the quantitative findings represent the objective achievement of the learning. This difference is analysed in the next section.

4.3 Discussion

This section discusses the findings for RQ1 (How do Indonesian EFL students' perceptions about their motivation to learn English reflect their experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom?). An initial objective of the research was to identify the role of motivation in the learning of English writing through technology-mediated TBL. It was hypothesised that participants' motivational levels might be affected positively by the introduction of technology-mediated TBL in their learning of English writing. With respect to the first research question, it was found that technology utilisation affected students' motivation in completing their writing tasks both positively and negatively, regardless of the use of PCs or smartphones. It was the particular software, applications or websites that played more important roles in keeping the students motivated to complete their tasks in the TBL writing skills context as these were a ubiquitous part of the students' life. As much of their daily life involves being connected to the internet, their learning is integrated with the use of internet access. How English was learned and used was interconnected with the equipment that students were allowed to access during their learning; motivation can be accommodated by creating a favourable condition for learning writing skills through technological facilities. In other words, this study found that motivation was not the dominant factor in learning English writing skills. However, access to digital tools facilitated learning regardless of the motive for learning. This conclusion was made on the basis of Gardner's model (2007).

This model emphasises the language learning motivation for foreign language learning. It acknowledges the difference that the foreign language context has on successful learning. It considers the integrated nature of one's intention to learn the language. It aims at building integrative motivation in the learners' mind through their affective, cognitive, and behavioural conduct. This model involves four main categories of variables: motivation, integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and language anxiety.

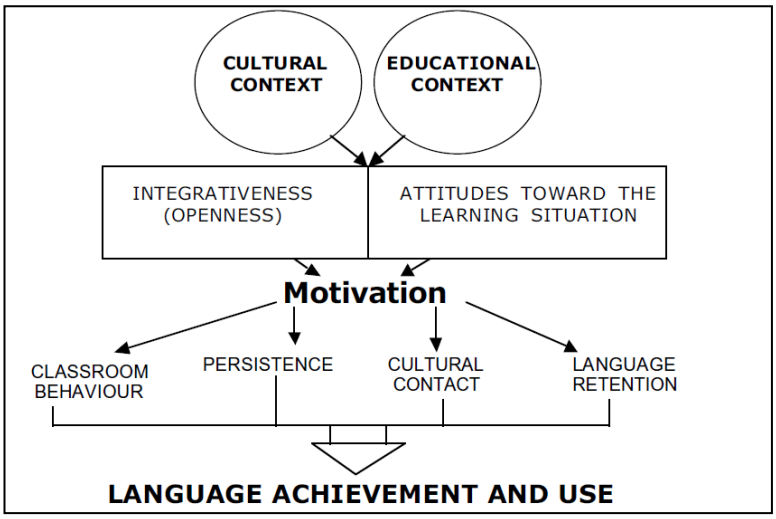

Figure 4.3 A model indicating the effects of the cultural and educational contexts on motivation in second language learning by Gardner (2007)

Figure 4.3 shows the model "Indicating the Effects of the Cultural and Educational Contexts on Motivation in Second Language Learning" (Gardner, 2007). The model indicates that cultural and educational contexts affect students' openness and attitude toward the learning situation. These four elements build up students' motivation, which this study claims fluctuated based on the classroom situation. Thus, the motivation that was reported on item 1 of the students' questionnaire was compared with the observed Language Learning Motivation (LLM) by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) derived from the classroom observation notes and the responses in the focus group discussions. Classroom behaviour, persistence in following the sequence of tasks, and language retention were recorded. These four elements are the indicator of motivation to study a foreign language within a challenging context as in this study. However, cultural contact and language retention were not recorded in the data. This model is relevant, particularly with respect to classroom learning motivation. This model bridges the gap from the language learning motivation. As language learning motivation is in the internal person's scope, the classroom learning motivation covers the external elements within the classroom context that influences the learner's affective and cognitive behaviour. The task cycles that the learners needed to follow in order to be successful in their learning built up the learners' persistence and this in turn influenced their classmates in a snowball effect. In the end, it generated group motivation for learning.

4.3.1 The reflection of language learning motivation

As reported in section 4.2.1, the first finding indicates that students reported very high levels of instrumental and a mix between instrumental and integrative motivation in

learning English as reported by 52% of students across all years. This finding contradicts the earliest findings on foreign language learning and learning motivation (Dörnyei, 1990; Lauder, 2010; Oxford & Shearin, 1994), in which researchers claimed that motivation was extremely important in learning a language. Meanwhile, this study observed that having a high level of motivation did not influence students' classroom behaviour in learning the language.

Oxford and Shearin (1994) and Dörnyei (1990) claimed that instrumental motivation and the need for achievement were associated with the context of foreign language learning. This was because the nature of learning a foreign language was different from learning a second language. As the students in this research had little or no direct contact in their daily life with the language, they were separated in space and attitude from the target language. Integrative goals were, for second language learners, more specific to a particular target culture. These goals were more determined by their attitude and beliefs about the target language and the culture of the English speakers. Malaysian students, for example, who learn English in a second language context are considered to have integrative motivation that is in contrast to the Indonesian English learning context. The status of English in Malaysia was different from Indonesia even though both lie in the same region. However, in Indonesia, English is a foreign language. Therefore, Indonesian students, the students in this current research to be precise, were more prone to having instrumental motivation as there were no real needs for using the language in daily direct communication. This thesis concludes that the majority of the students did not have a genuine interest in English learning. English was only understood as a stepping-stone for their life. It was not seen as a significant part of their identity that they wanted to develop further.

The second finding was that 57.6% of the questionnaire respondents indicated that they wanted to be able to communicate well in English as their reason to enrol in an English Department in higher education. However, this drive was not observable during the classroom activities. Even though this second finding indicates an expected motivation for language learning, which should be the most important factor for successful learning, it contradicted the classroom observation results. While students were working on the writing task (main task cycle), they did not reflect the attitude of those who wanted to be successful. The majority of the students in Year 1 and 2 groups spent a longer time than the allocated period for making their first draft. This longer

time spent on writing a simple paragraph was noted as a drawback that the time for feedback session became limited. Consequently, the language focus cycle of the technology-mediated TBL was not well performed.

Based on the theory of Language Learning Motivation (LLM), students might have integrative (e.g., to get connected to the English-speaking community) or instrumental (e.g., job-related goals) motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner, 2004). Equally, the same motivation might have contributed to the reason why a student wanted to enrol in the English Department; as they liked English or they wanted to be associated with the English speakers or the English culture. The findings from this thesis support Kenny (2017) in that students at the higher education level attended the university with less English proficiency to study the subject field. The case in this study was worse than the situation that Kenny described. As reported in the finding section 4.2.1 (see page 111–12), Tari was not the only student who was both an unmotivated English learner and had Basic English proficiency. The deductive reasoning exposed here for understanding the nature of the learners in this study. The data were collected from the West Sumatera Province of Indonesia, which is known for having a low level of English proficiency (First, 2012). It is in fact the lowest among the twelve provinces. As the province does not have any international tourist destinations, except the small Mentawai Island that was popular for surfing, West Sumatera does not have contact with English cultures except through formal education channels in a classroom context. This situation has contributed to the lower levels of motivation found among the English learners in the province. Tari's case, therefore, represents her peers in the West Sumatera context.

In a more specific foreign language-learning context, Lauder (2010) claimed instrumental motivation was a significant factor among Indonesian students in learning English. Moreover, English was learned as it was needed for economic development. It contributed to the instrumental motivation to gain access to international markets, academic studies, and professional life. Lauder's finding helps us to understand the findings extracted from the current study. As students reported high levels of motivation for English learning, their high motivation was not sufficient for making them engage voluntarily in their learning, especially in writing modules. This was because Indonesian learners considered writing as a boring activity both in terms of L1 and L2

writing activities, as also reported by Wanofri from Class 2A in Focus Group Discussion 7.

Having said that, language learning motivation is subject to change and this current study also reported that instrumental motivation was a dominant factor for English learning in this vocational context. Even though integrated motivation was identified in response to the questionnaire item 2, this finding contradicted the first finding and was not confirmed from the results of the focus group discussion and the classroom observation results. Regardless of the findings on the motivation types, this thesis does not consider this classification important. This conclusion validates Gardner (2007) who found that the intensity of the motivation is more crucial in L2 learning than classifying motivation as integrative, instrumental or extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. The reported reasons for choosing to study in the English Department in relation to their very high motivation to learn English was attached to enabling them to communicate in English. However, the specific communication channel was not specified. In Indonesian EFL learning contexts, oral communication is commonly referred to as communication. This context is different from this current study however, which confirms the research of Sawir (2005) and Sulistiyo (2016), in that a grammar-focused and reading-based English learning dominates the English learning context in Indonesia.

As is recorded in the national curriculum, the outcome-based curriculum for higher education level aims to develop four language skills equally (Solikhah, 2015). In its development in an Indonesian EFL learning context, communicative teaching was expected to be implemented for the four skills. However, this does not happen in practice. Musthafa (2001; 2015) claimed that communicative English teaching that was implemented in Indonesia was expected to improve speaking skills as it is spoken in daily life in the English-speaking countries. Therefore, this study found that in responding to the online questionnaire, students automatically understood the successful learning of English in terms of being competent in speaking and ignored English writing competence. Students therefore focussed on their motivation to learn English in terms of becoming a fluent English speaker.

Having reported that very high motivation was detected quantitatively in this current study based on the students' self-reported input from the online questionnaire, it was nevertheless not confirmed by the results from the classroom observation and lecturers' evaluation of their motivation. There are two possible factors explaining this:

1) classroom-learning motivation (Gardner, 2007) and 2) unfixed motivation issues (Dörnyei, 2003; 2001a). According to Gardner (2007), classroom-learning motivation refers to any specific situation in the classroom situation that contributes to motivation. Dörnyei (2003; 2001a) referred to possible changes in motivation as unfixed motivation issue.

Firstly, classroom-learning motivation was evident from the observations. There were two elements in the classroom-learning motivation found in this study: the expectation of the system and the curriculum. The English Department at the polytechnic was expected to produce ready-to-work graduates who have English skills for translation and broadcasting jobs. This expectation of the system did not encourage students to be in touch with real English users from the main English speaking countries, such as the UK, the U.S, Australia, and Canada. Students did not interact with any native speakers either orally or in written form. In consequence, the curriculum was not designed to facilitate this integrated motivation for learning English. The curriculum was designed to accommodate job-related skills that matched Indonesia-English skills. This approach-reflected instrumental motivation for learning. Thus, language-learning motivation in this vocational context was discrete. Thus, when it is approached as an integrated study with the TBLT and technology-mediated learning for a localised context, English learning can be accommodated to suit the system's expectation to prepare students to be skilful in Indonesian English translation and broadcasting related jobs. As the study found, by enabling students to access the internet to complete their tasks, it reduced their anxiety and difficulties in dealing with limited vocabulary issues. Through repeated activities in doing the writing tasks, students acquired the vocabulary and language patterns unconsciously.

Secondly, motivation issues are not fixed (Dörnyei, 2003, 2001a). Therefore, it is important to limit the study on motivation to a particular matter. This current study validates Dörnyei's claim as it approaches motivation in a very specific context of learning (i.e., specify the focus on language learning motivation in a certain skill). This agreement with the claim was made because of the inconsistent findings recorded from the questionnaires (item 1) and the focus group discussions (question about motivation). In responding to the questionnaire, the students in this study focused their responses on English skills in spoken communication and disregarded the written one. Therefore, different findings were identified from the focus group discussion. This was because the

data collection was associated with the writing modules and the contact was made through these classes. In this situation, the students became more aware of their English writing ability and motivation to study English in the writing classes. This also connected with Gardner's claim on classroom-learning (Gardner, 2007). To pass the module with good scores became the dominant reason for students based on the FGD results. The students who did not have integrative learning motivation were influenced by the learning atmosphere in the technology-mediated TBL writing classes.

According to this qualitative data, instrumental motivation was identified: shifting motivational drives between integrated and instrumental motivation occurred. As Gardner divided motivation into language learning and classroom learning motivation, the classroom environment may play an important role in strengthening language motivation. In the case of low level of motivation that is assumed as having instrumental motivation, the classroom environment that utilises technology-mediated TBL approach will synchronically build the motivation to persist and retain the writing skills gained from the task cycle. In this case, motivation types changed. A similar concept was identified from Bower (2017) who reviewed motivation in current language learning. He claimed that learners' motivation, the learning context and environment influence and shape each other. These three materials co-exist in a classroom context where changes in the level and types of motivation can happen.

This current study did not find any importance in classifying motivation into certain types. This is because of the sociocultural context of learning of English itself as a first foreign language in Indonesia. Motivation is more developmental-oriented (Lauder, 2010). Thus, looking at the intensity of the motivation is more crucial. This assumption is in line with Gardner (2007) in that classifying motivation to integrative, instrumental or extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in L2 learning is less important than the intensity of the motivation. This was because the openness to cultural identification was included in the integrative motive. It also included openness to cultural identification as an element that is likely associated with attaining the ultimate level of achievement. An example of this was making lesser grammatical mistakes in the writing tasks as a surface learning in developing the writing skills.

EFL learning in the polytechnic was clearly job-oriented learning. Students were projected to learn English skills that would be useful in their future employment. Therefore, this motive has been cultivated in the curriculum. Students were not guided

to learn English only for the sake of liking the language but also to be able to perform certain real-world tasks using the language. In this case, integrative (i.e., to integrate oneself into the English culture) and instrumental (i.e., to be competent in a certain skill for getting a job) motivation should be working together to create a successful learning environment. In this case, this current study agrees with Gardner (2007) that classroom-learning motivation may promote the acquisition of individual elements of the language. However, this study disagrees with Gardner's perspective in that the integrative motive serves the need for achieving the true mastery of a certain language.

This thesis argues that in the vocational higher education context, learning is expected to be more externally oriented. Being proficient in English is not only related to being able to communicate with the English users due to the issue of global Englishes. English learning in a polytechnic is also attached to its educational context: the expectations of the system, the quality of the programme, the interest, enthusiasm, and skills of the teacher, the adequacy of the materials, the curriculum, and the class atmosphere. All of these elements play a role in the motivation of the students (Gardner, 2007a). In order to explore further about these issues, we need to discuss the findings from the qualitative results.

In order to address the first research question qualitatively, I relate "correlation" to "relationship". The answer to this question on the correlation between students' reported level of motivation, the use of technology, and students' actual performance in task completion was evaluated qualitatively by generating answers from the coded transcripts (see Appendix 20). As it is not possible to correlate quantitative datasets with qualitative datasets, I have replaced the term "correlation" with "relationship" as both are synonymous (Correlation, n.d). The Oxford Online Dictionary refers to the meaning of "relationship" as "the way in which two or more people or things are connected, or the state of being connected" (Relationship, n.d). This dictionary-derived support is used to replace the lack of resources in this specific context. Therefore, this study refers "relationship" to the words "influence" and "effect" to reflect the connection between elements. As previously stated, quotations from the qualitative data obtained from the focus group discussions with the students were used and crosschecked with the transcripts from the one-to-one interviews with their lecturers. The results from the observations were then described by indicating findings from classroom observations and field notes where relevant.

The results of the correlation analysis are rather disappointing. No significant correlations were identified. The first correlation analysed was between motivation and English proficiency. The relationship between motivation and *task-as-outcome*, viz., Final Scores. A strong, positive correlation between the motivation levels and the Final Scores was recorded. However, the correlation was not statistically significant (r = -0.74, n = 125, p = .410).

For the relationship between motivation and writing skills (*task-in-process*), four variables analysed, and the results were also not statistically significant. The first one was the students' actual performance on task-based activities measured by their performance on their weekly writing tasks or assignments. The relationship between motivation and task-based activities as measured by assignment score was investigated using a Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient. There was a weak positive correlation between the motivation level and assignment scores (r= .108, n= 123, p = .236). The second correlation result was analysed between motivation and the mid-term score. The relationship between motivation and writing skills as measured by mid-term test score was also investigated using a Spearman's product-moment correlation coefficient. It was weaker than the assignment score's correlation assignment scores (r= .026, n= 124, p = .771. The third one was between motivation and semester test score. The relationship between motivation and writing skills as measured by semester test score was also investigated using a Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient. There was a weak correlation, but it was stronger than the mid-term test score variables (r = 069, n = 124, p = .449).

This present study aims to fill the gap on motivation to learn English among vocational higher education students in Indonesia that were identified as a theoretical shortcoming in Indonesian research on EFL learners (Section 1.3). The findings with regard to the motivation reported by the student participants indicated that motivation is dynamic and context-specific in nature. It varies according to the specific language skills as each is related to different challenges.

From the focus group discussion, it was recorded that students were enthusiastic about completing their writing task. From the motivation point of view, enthusiasm indicates motivation. Interesting findings generated from the focus group discussion related to students' participation. Observing the willingness to volunteer in the study reflected students' motivation. It was noticed that students who were willing to

participate were those who indicated enthusiasm for their classroom activities. These students also reported having very high levels of motivation. Thus, it affected the results from the focus group discussion, which indicated that students' level of motivation did not affect their enthusiasm.

The findings suggest a potential connection between the use of technology and the ease of access to references mediating the learning of English writing skills. For instance, the participants' perceived difficulties in bringing and using printed dictionaries were found to have contributed to the unwillingness to perform well in the writing task completion. This reflects the influence of technology on motivating students to learn English writing skills. Moreover, the effort to find useful digital tools to complete the writing tasks was related to changes in their motivation (Section 5.2.3). Regardless of the type of motivation and the reasons for getting motivated and demotivated, the students reported having a very high level of motivation. As the quantitative data were only collected once, the changes were not measured adequately over time. However, it was recorded from the focus group discussions with the students of Year 2 and 3 groups that they experienced changes in motivation at different stages of learning. This study acknowledges that this finding was derived from different students recalling their motivation from a different level of study. This means that motivation develops over time following the classroom learning motivation as proposed by Gardner (2007). However, this study does not record the longitudinal aspect of the motivation.

The motivation of students from Year 3 and the graduate groups', while they were in Year 1, was different from Year 2 and Year 3. Once they progressed to the next level, they found different tools to assist them in their learning and they became more confident in their English skills. Being more confident with their language proficiency helped them in completing their writing tasks in general as reported in the focus group discussion 9 and 10. This increase in confidence also affected the motivated intensity and the motivation types. Consequently, students also became more motivated in their English writing skills and in completing their writing tasks. This finding was in line with the finding from Busse and Walter (2013). Their findings suggested that students' continued motivation at university level was affected by their perceived progress. When students felt that they had made progress in their English mastery, they became more motivated to learn. The improved motivation was associated with increasing enjoyment.

English learning motivation was not reflected during the writing task completion in the technology-mediated TBL. This claim is made by analysing the motivation from the model suggested by Gardner (2007). In this model, motivation was from both cultural and educational contexts that incorporated openness and attitude toward the learning situation. Classroom behaviour, persistence, cultural contact, and language retention were used to observe language achievement and use in the context of L2 learning.

By comparing the results from the questionnaire with the focus group discussions using this model, the answer for RQ 1 was generated. Based on the correlation analysis, no significant relation between motivation and 1) the assignment score, 2) the mid-test scores, 3) the semester, and 4) final scores indicated a positive relationship between the variables. Moreover, there was no statistical differences between motivation levels and *task-in process* (assignment, mid semester-test, and semester test variables) and *task-as-outcome* (final score). However, the association between the use of technology and the performance in Writing 1 module was confirmed. The experience of learning writing skills using technology-mediated TBL approaches did not significantly influence the students' motivation in terms of quantitative findings. This finding was expected as the literature records that the success of learning was not only measured by the scores (Gardner, 2010). This current finding contradicts the findings from Shabudin, Aisyah, Darus, and Mimiko (2014). They claimed that the exposure to the application of this technology contributed to improved motivation, enthusiasm, excitement, and scores. The difference lays in the nature of the Japanese and Indonesian context. While technology in Japan and Indonesia is completely different, the social background of these two studies is also a striking point. Therefore, the findings from these two studies are incomparable. Each study is unique in terms of its own context.

Another significant aspect of motivation in this current study is extracted from the qualitative data that indicated different results. It is interesting to note that motivation is hard to measure as it keeps changing over time and is influenced by different factors that are not fixed (Dörnyei, 2003; 2001a). This study might not have measured motivation related to a specific trait. To add to this evaluation, as it was not an experimental study in which the application of TBLT implementation was carefully planned, the result was mainly uncontrolled. Similar findings were recorded by Lo and

Hyland (2007) in their action research study in Hong Kong. They found that their new writing programme improved students' writing engagement and motivation. However, this also resulted in lower writing scores for accuracy and organisation, especially among the more able students. Those who had better writing scores were engaging and motivated in doing their writing. However, the enthusiastic way that the participants responded to the new programme suggests that encouraging young writers to write about topics of interest and relevance to them and providing them with genuine audiences, can have a liberating and confidence-building effect.

In this current study, the use of smartphones for vocabulary-searching tools by the students from Class 1B in the Year 1 group did not influence their motivation to complete their writing task. For writing tasks, productive skills were required. For students who used PCs as the tools to access the required internet-based tools (Section 5.2.1.2), the use of technology in completing their writing task did not influence their motivation to learn English.

4.3.2 The effects of the cultural and educational contexts on motivation in the learning

Gardner's model (2007) can explain the not statistically significant findings reported from two hypotheses. Even though the results of the study were not significant, students who went through this learning cycle found that learning through technology-mediated TBL approaches was preferred. Gardner's Model "Model Indicating the Effects of the Cultural and Educational Contexts on Motivation in Second Language Learning" (2007) has been used here to explore the findings.

This study observed that the cultural and educational context played a major role in assembling openness in students' minds that was reflected in their attitudes toward the learning situation. The students were familiar with the writing culture and educational context in which they were not accustomed to the task-based learning cycles. This cycles of pre-task (planning), task (writing, giving feedback, and rewriting), and language focus (analysis and practice) were challenging for the students in the first place (details of this three-task cycle is explored in Chapter 5). When students became used to the new cultural and educational context, they started to feel the integratedness of English and the task cycles in their learning and that was reflected in their attitude toward learning as recorded in the FGDs. It was evident that in the first semester

students might need a bit time to become familiar with this learning. However, students who had finished their three-year program reported that they gained the advantage of this TBL approach through the use of technological applications. Tari, from 2B for example, who was identified as a very extreme case in this study, reported that she felt much better during her study in Semester 3. This study might only identify the first layer of Gardner's model. It takes a considerable amount of time to cultivate the motivation that can be observed in the classroom behaviour. By observing students' persistence, it was clear that their effort to complete their tasks in their learning of the writing skills enabled the students to have cultural contact with the English users and acquire and retain the language.

Based on the evaluation of the situation in this study, I recommend creating the conditions for better learning to achieve higher language retention. The recommendation is made with regard to designing a lesson plan that considers cultural contact with a non-learner's element (i.e., through social media instead of only on a limited platform). When this element is included, it is expected that the classroom behaviour will reflect a positive learning motivation that will show students' persistence in following the task cycles.

4.4 Summary

This investigation was designed to assess students' motivation to learn English at a vocational higher education in Indonesia. A gap identified from the review of the literature relates to motivation, seen either as instrumental/extrinsic or integrative/intrinsic. However, motivation to learn a new language might not solely be either instrumental or integrated but a combination dependent on the unique context; this is particularly evident in Indonesia. In particular, this chapter explored the quantitative and qualitative findings in order to answer RQ1 (How do Indonesian EFL students' perceptions about their motivation to learn English reflect their experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom?). The findings suggest that Indonesian EFL learners were highly motivated to study English for economic development, such as personal development, getting jobs, or employability. The answer to this question is that the motivation for learning English was not reflected in their experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom. It was in reverse. Students' experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom developed their motivation for learning English in writing classrooms.

The results showed that the use of technology, such as e-portfolios, classroom management systems, digital online and offline dictionaries, and other internet-facilitated equipment in the learning of English writing skills, motivated the students. The questionnaire results indicated that the students had very high levels of motivation in learning English in West Sumatera, Indonesia. However, they did not show enthusiasm in working on the first draft of their writing tasks. This session seemed to be very time-consuming. Students were not excited to get their writing finished on time. They participated or volunteered in the classroom activities. Even though the students reported wanting to learn the English language, they were not motivated to take an active role in the learning process. Moreover, the students mentioned that they lacked the confidence to write because of limited vocabulary. Similar to other Asian cultures, Indonesian students were dominated by dependency on their teacher. They relied on instructions and guidelines from the lecturers.

In conclusion, Indonesian EFL learners who studied English at a vocational higher education institution can be independent in their learning when they have been given access to the internet. After analysing motivation and students' learning through technology-mediated TBL classrooms an ESP context is recommended.

Further exploration of the motivating and demotivating factors influencing English learning in the vocational higher education context will be analysed in Chapter 5. Similar to this chapter, evidence analysed in Chapter 5 was gathered from a mixed methods approach.

CHAPTER 5
STUDENTS' MOTIVATION AND TECHNOLOGY-MEDIATED TASK-BASED WRITING MODULES

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 has described and discussed the quantitative and qualitative findings relating to the first research question. This chapter explores the affective factors that influence the students' learning motivation in technology-mediated TBLT writing classes (RQ2). Another objective of the study was to identify how students complete their writing tasks (RQ3). Therefore, the findings and discussions of two research questions are explored here. This first part of the chapter explores the findings (Sections 5.2 and 5.3) and the next part discusses the results of each research question (Section 5.4). Finally, a summary of the chapter is presented in Section 5.5.

5.2 The findings of RQ 2: Affective factors in learning writing skills

The second contribution from this study arises from its analysis of the factors that affected the students' motivation by exploring the findings from the second research question (RQ2. What are the factors that affect students' motivation to complete their English writing tasks in a technology-mediated task-based approach?). The section consists of motivating factors in technology-mediated learning (Section 5.2.1), motivating factors in the TBL context (Section 5.2.2), and demotivating factors in technology-mediated TBL classes (Section 5.2.3).

As was mentioned previously, this section addresses the main issues with regard to the students' motivation in English writing modules at the *Politeknik Negeri Padang (PNP)*. This section provides an overview of the results from the quantitative data recording the factors that affect motivation in the writing classes. The data explored in this section relate to the motivational issues as recorded in the student questionnaire Items 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, and 14 that were administered in Week 8 of a nineteen-week semester. Firstly, this section presents the findings of this research question by describing the descriptive statistics arising from the questionnaire items related to the variables (reasons for being motivated and demotivated by the technology-mediated task-based learning) and students' perception of the changes to their writing skills.

As the second research question requires exploration of the factors that affect motivation, this section focuses on the descriptive findings. The descriptive statistics analysis was conducted to discover whether the students reported motivating or demotivating factors based on the highest counts. Then, differences between classes and motivation levels were evaluated and compared to the findings from the FGDs.

The following descriptive findings from the students' questionnaire are reported and compared with the results from the FGDs (see Table 5.1 for details).

Table 5.1 Descriptive statistics for items in the online student questionnaire

	Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		The Findings
5	Perception on the effect of task on motivation	125	5.06	0.878	6	Agree (The writing tasks affect motivation to learn English)
6	Perception on the effect of technology on motivation	125	5.30	0.783	6	Strongly agree (The use of technology in learning affects motivation to learn English)
7	Reason for being motivated	125	3.21	1.102	5	The use of technology contributes to a more interesting learning process (be more motivated)
8	Reason for being demotivated	124	4.21	1.142	5	Unknown factors caused demotivation
9	Perception on changes in writing skills	123	2.59	1.541	5	Self-encouragement helps in acquiring improved writing skills
13	Perception on the effect of non-technology utilisation on motivation to complete the task	124	3.01	1.200	5	Disagree (the use of non-technology does not cause interest for completing writing tasks)
14	Perception on the use of non-technology in completing tasks	125	4.42	1.623	7	Undecided for the use of pens, pencils, paper, and printed dictionaries

Table 5.1 presents the descriptive findings from the questionnaire. The following part of this section moves on to describe in detail the motivational factors for English learning in the technology-mediated-TBL writing classes.

Overall, 125 students (M = 3.21, SD = 1.102) responded to Item 7 (reasons for being motivated). Furthermore, 124 students (M = 4.21, SD = 1.142) responded to Item 8 (reasons for being demotivated), and 123 students (M = 2.59, SD =1.541) reported their perception on changes in writing skills. Firstly, the reasons for being motivated were investigated in a closed-ended statement (Item 7) followed by five lists of reasons: 1) the learning enthusiasm of their peers, 2) family situations, 3) the use of technology makes English learning more interesting, 4) the lecturer's character, and 5) other unknown factors, such as flexible access to entertainment on the internet.

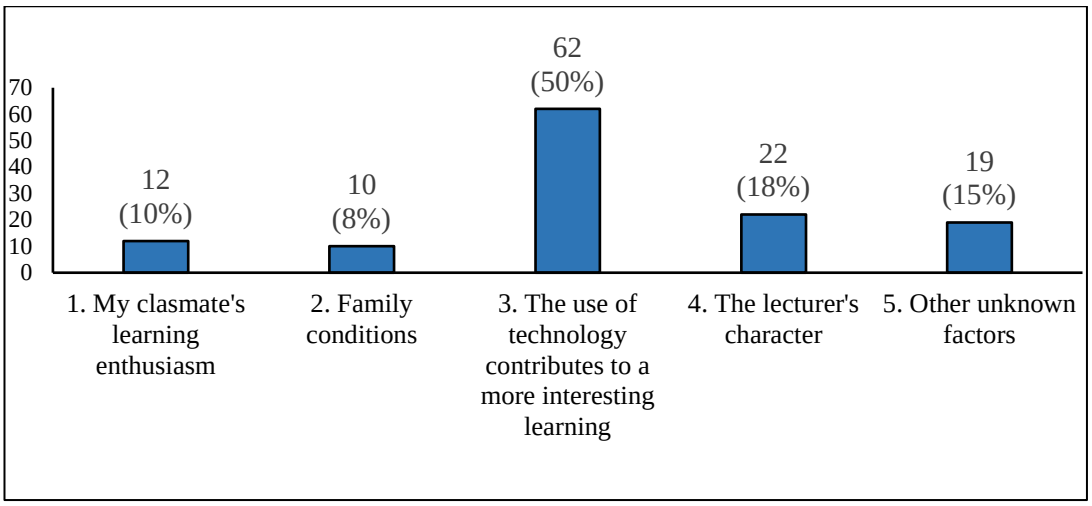

Figure 5.1 Reason for being motivated (Item 7)

Figure 5.1 describes the results from the students' questionnaire Item 7. As indicated, sixty-two students (50%) reported choosing Point 3 representing their reasons for being motivated because the use of technology contributed to making English learning more interesting (M = 3.21, df = 1.102). The second highest count was for option 4 (the lecturer's character) by 18% (twenty-two students) and this was followed by option 5 (other unknown factors needed to be explored further) by 15.2%. The unspecified reasons listed for option 5 were unpredictable at the time when the questionnaire was designed. In contrast, family concerns (Point 3) was reported as the lowest reason by ten students to be motivated (8%). Then, the second lowest reason was influenced by peers' learning motivation (Point 1) by 12 responses (9.6%).

A not statistically significant difference between classes relating to the reason for being motivated in English language learning, especially in writing classes, was detected in a non-parametric test of differences ($\chi^2(5) = 2.\ 484$, $p = 0.779$). Therefore, it was concluded that students from all classes agreed that the task-based learning approach (TBL) provided a motivating learning environment for acquiring English writing skills.

5.2.1 Motivating factors in Technology-Mediated Learning

Having explored the quantitative findings relating to the motivational issues, this section explores the qualitative data in order to obtain a richer understanding of the factors relevant to RQ2. The findings from Item 7 were supported by the qualitative results arising from a thematic analysis in order to answer RQ2. The item relating to the use of technology as a contributing factor to a more interesting learning environment was the most significant reason reported for Item 7 in the students' questionnaire.

Similarly, the use of Edmodo as a learning platform and e-portfolio was the most identified node found from the thematic analysis on FGD transcripts. A number of motivational factors were identified from ten FGDs, and this confirmed that being motivated in their English writing tasks was due to the use of Edmodo for various reasons. The important theme of Edmodo recurred throughout the dataset. Five broad themes related to motivating factors emerged from the analysis: its novelty, its economic value, environmental factors, time efficiency, and technical advantages.

5.2.1.1 Novelty

The use of internet technology in English writing classes was considered as a striking experience in the specific region in West Sumatera Province in Indonesia. Standard English classes were normally conducted in a non-computer-based class. Therefore, the use of the internet in the learning classroom was a novelty and motivating for the learners. The thematic analysis result identified a valuable response from a third-year student of Class 3B in this respect:

> Because if the lecturers give us some tasks and then we also can, and we search in the Google, and Googling anything, and then, what makes me improve because we use the technology, and then we can find something new, something new, and new, and then, yeah I think that really useful for me actually.
>
> (Mutiara, FGD 8, Class 3B)

Mutiara, a student from Class 3 B, mentioned “something new” to express the new learning that she had acquired from her writing class due to the utilisation of computer technology in her learning. Mutiara learnt new things by doing the assigned tasks, and this was enabled by the use of information technology. The tone of her response, “something new, something new, and new”, indicated a positive and motivated attitude. It gave a clear indication that she felt motivated in her learning.

Furthermore, it was identified that a student in FGD2 identified Web 2.0 as a motivating factor in her learning. An extract from a student in the class that was introduced to Edmodo and computer technology (1B), described this reason as follows:

> Support our study in English department no matter what is the subject, what is the speaking, writing, reading, listening, grammar, computer application or other we will use high technologies such as laptops, computers, cameras and also internet, Edmodo also Moodle. This technology I think that really helpful for us because with this technology we can finish our work quickly and the lecturer can give us some information throughout this technology such as Ms Hasanah

> Basri give us some assignments on Moodle and so that we can quickly know it from it. Also, this technology makes us learn more what the use of it is, its benefit. I think so! We should use it with our necessary. Don't use it too much because it will [be] hard us so I think that all
>
> (Veronica, FGD 2, Class 1B)

A recurrent theme in the FGDs was a sense amongst the participants that Edmodo was similar to a social media. A first-year student, Olga, described her opinion on this matter in the following quote:

> Yes! For example, Edmodo. We can learn Edmodo with the practice, with the post and status like in media social but this the Edmodo can use by our class. There are we can write down what we do, like practice English every day. We can try to make our sentence and words in English and make progress by the time, every day, and every week. And yes, we just practice, practice more!
>
> (Olga, FGD 1, Class 1A)

In this excerpt, Olga described that she liked learning through Edmodo as it was an educational technology that her lecturer introduced in the class (see Section 5.4.2.1.3 Platforms for the Learning). The preference for Edmodo in learning English writing skills was due to her familiarity with social media that she could post something in English. By doing so, she reported that she could practise her English writing. Another student gave a similar response from a different class, 1B.

5.2.1.2 Technical advantages

Issues related to technical advantages from using available technological facilities were particularly prominent in the FGD data. Web 2.0, such as Google Search, Google Translate, and Edmodo were among the themes that arose in the FGD data. Putri from FGD 9 reported that Edmodo made her learning process easier:

> Because it was supported by Wi-Fi connection, so you have the facilities when you were working on your tasks on the campus. I thought none of the students here has the facilities, at least you have an internet-connected cell phone and you can browse the internet. Therefore, to do tasks through the internet and using other technology, you don't have to send it through e-mail. It is easier through Edmodo or Facebook because the campus has provided you with this internet connection.
>
> (Putri, FGD 9, Graduate 1)

Putri, who had studied in the English Department for about four years, indicated that the use of social media-like facilities, made her learning easier. Tari, a student of Class 2B, expressed a similar reason as cited in the extract "It is harder to use paper and pens in

writing classes". Another technical benefit was reported by Danang, a participant from the same class as Tari, who emphasised that he found the additional feature of Edmodo helpful:

> Edmodo? Yes, like the others, Edmodo makes sending our task much easier, and it is just, like social media. We can communicate with the teacher and to comment on our task and Edmodo has additional things, I think. Then, it has an Edmodo Play. We can do, we get another information, like historical or educational, like math, like biology or something.
>
> (Danang, FGD 4, Class 1B)

Even though he did not explain about the additional features, Danang mentioned that learning using technology had advantaged his process of acquiring the language and additional input.

The next reason given for a potential technology effect on motivation was due to the error identification that is a function of the program. An extract below describes this reason: "Yes, because when I write some paragraph, if we make a mistake, Edmodo will help with, for example, the English rule requires capital letters when we wrote small letters, we were given clue that it was wrong" (Lulu, FGD, 1 Class 1A). In this extract, Lulu mentioned that she liked to write in Edmodo because she believed that Edmodo helped her to identify mistakes in her writing. Year 2 students also reported the same reason, namely, that that error-tracking feature helped students to learn from their written mistakes: "Yeah, mistake, the computer will make something like a line, so make easier for me to know what my mistake is, Miss" (Nurhayati, FGD 4, Class 2A). From this extract, it can be seen that Nurhayati mentioned that the factor that made her more motivated in her learning was the correcting feature of the technology. Nurhayati explained that the grammatical and spelling mistakes notification function provided on the Microsoft Words document helped her to notice her incorrect English usage. By being aware of these mistakes, she was able to revise and improve her written expression.

The next aspect of the technical advantages that emerged from the FGD data was the use of software and internet-based dictionaries. The use of technology also eased the student's movement and study of English as reported by a student from class 1A:

> Technology for writing? In my opinion, for writing class, technology for writing and the writing itself, it is important. If we study writing conventionally, we have to bring printed dictionaries, write on paper, it is a hassle. It is modern time. If we bring printed dictionaries, they

> are very thick. It is not possible to carry it everywhere. It is better to use a mobile phone that has supporting applications.
>
> (Halimah, FGD 1, Class 1A)

Halimah explained that the use of technology in her learning had replaced the use of a printed dictionary. As the printed dictionaries were not easy to carry, she expressed her preference for the use of technology in that it helped her in her writing classes. This was achieved by using digital dictionaries that were available on her mobile phone. By doing so, Halimah was able to access the vocabulary that she needed to develop her writing. Similarly, a Year 2 student came up with the same reason:

> For example, when we need the dictionary, we do not need to use [a] conventional dictionary to find the word that we want to know the meaning. We just turn on the computer; we open the online dictionary or the other then, we just type the word and then we can find the meaning. It is very easy.
>
> (Susan, FGD 1, Class 1A)

Susan reported that online dictionaries were easy to use, thus confirming Halimah's statement, which indicated that the computer technology assisted her learning. As explained, it was as simple as using the computer, accessing the online dictionary, typing in a word and instantly seeing the targeted vocabulary item. Once she found the target item, she copied and pasted it into her writing.

That the internet and Web 2.0 applications such as Edmodo were preferred to non-technology approaches was also mentioned by another student in the same group:

> I think using technology is very helpful when finishing my task. When I like to finish my task by using technology because we can find a related article, related information about our task. There are many kinds of dictionaries to be used and each of them has different functions. For the example, we can use what we call it? I forgot. Hmm.. The free dictionary. In the free dictionary, we can find the meaning of that word and then sederet.com. There are a lot of ... We can find a lot of another word. For the example, and then yes, I like technology.
>
> (Ruri, FGD 9, Graduate 1)

From this extract, it is evident that the student was motivated by the use of technology for her learning as she had easy access to dictionaries through the internet.

5.2.1.3 Economic factors

Secondly, economic reasons also emerged from the analysis. Putri, a final year student mentioned, "It's cheaper and easier to complete the tasks through technology" (Putri,

FGD 9, Graduate 1). Putri had studied in the English Department for about four years clearly iterated the financial reasons behind her preference for technology-mediated learning:

> If I bought books and I have to tear off the paper from the book every month, it would be costly, Miss. One paper for each lecturer, each paper will be checked a bit, we revise the writing then we have to resubmit it to the lecturers, we count to numbers of lecturers we have to submit similarly within a week, you can imagine how much we have to spend.
>
> (Putri, FGD 9, Graduate 1)

Putri explained further that she also believed that the use of the e-tools saved paper as well the costs associated with buying notebooks and writing utensils. Thus, she did not need to spend her limited resources and, by doing so, she was able to concentrate more on studying English. In the previous chapter (Section 4.2.1), one of the students from the Year 2 group also identified the importance of the financial conditions to her decision-making. This statement from Putri added more input on this matter. One finding of the current study, then, is that English learning motivation tends to be higher when the financial costs decrease.

5.2.1.4 Environmental issue

Turning now to the third reason, learning English writing skills using the internet was motivating for its environmentally-friendly implications. An environmental issue was identified from the FGD 1 as recorded in the following extract:

> We can minimise the rubbish like the paper, and we just use the computer or laptop and typing there are we can conclude all of the paragraph or sentences we can post in Edmodo, we can practice so if we practice with the paper and pen. Sometimes, we produce the rubbish if we make a mistake or false to write down we can just make the rubbish and for everywhere and yes it can be a dirty place.
>
> (Olga, FGD 1, Class 1A)

Olga was the only student who explicitly raised this issue. Nevertheless, other students in the group responded positively when she mentioned this point relating to the environmentally-friendly implications of using Edmodo. While no other participants gave feedback on this issue, it was nevertheless considered to be a valid and important issue arising from this group.

5.2.1.5 Time considerations

Turning now to the fifth factor, using internet technology contributed to the students' motivation in completing their English writing tasks in terms of the time consideration factor. A common view amongst the FGD participants was that their motivation correlated with time alerts they received from the use of internet technology during their writing classes. The students reported that the use of Edmodo assisted them to keep track of the timeline for the writing task submission. When a question about the effect of technology on their English was asked, Veronica (1B) mentioned:

> It works, so quickly! Every information that we get from our lecturer, we can get fast, and we do what the lecturer instructed us. We can do it well, and we can submit it quickly too because this technology use fast speed and I think is helpful for doing our assignment, exercise and our homework …
>
> (Veronica, FGD 2, Class 1B)

Having become used to the learning approach identified with Edmodo, Veronica described how it had emerged as the right way of learning for her. She complemented the way she was taught through Edmodo as it provided her with quick access to information and made her aware of the relevant submission process for her tasks.

Moreover, the students expressed how the use of Web 2.0 in their learning made the process of task completion quicker and more effective, especially as a result of the use of Edmodo as their learning platform and e-portfolio for the writing modules. Relating to how the deadline in Edmodo helped her to improve her motivation to work on her tasks, Khairunisa mentioned:

> In Edmodo, we should do the task before the due date. That motivated for doing the task. I never really serious with my task in senior high school but when I go to the lecturer, and my lecturer gives a task, and we have to do by connecting to Edmodo, and we should do the task if you don't turn in then the task will ...
>
> (Khairunisa, FGD 6, Class 2A)

Khairunisa, a second-year student, mentioned that Edmodo helped her to do her task before the submission deadline was approaching. Khairunisa found the system's reminders as a motivating trigger for her learning. Wanofri from Class 2A also mentioned that they task submission deadlines in Edmodo were helpful for improving his motivation:

> Yes. When we talk about Edmodo, I remember about the deadline, now. Deadline in Edmodo, interesting for me to make the assignment on time. So that's why I thought Edmodo gives more benefit for us, especially in the writing [class]. Because we can't be playing with the writing. Because we have to [be] on time.
>
> (Wanofri, FGD 7, Class 2A)

Confirming that the use of internet technology benefited the learning process, Wanofri emphasised that the time consideration was crucial in writing classes.

Furthermore, a student from Class 2B highlighted that Edmodo provided speedy interaction: "If we use Edmodo, we can interact with each other instantly, and the sending is also very quick" (Tari, FGD 4, Class 2B). In this extract, Tari compared the use of Edmodo and conventional learning without the utilisation of educational technology. She mentioned the instant interaction and speedy task submission access through Edmodo. For Tari, this speedy submission benefited her.

Not only did the first and second-year students report that the deadline feature in Edmodo motivated them to do their writing tasks, but the same reason was also mentioned by a student from Class 3B:

> Yes! For me, Edmodo really improves my English, because Edmodo itself using English. Moreover, if we use Edmodo, we have it too, we the time, we have limitation and then when we have the task we have to make it before the limit, and if we didn't make it and we passed the limit, it means that we can't collect our task. So, it becomes more interested to do our task in the writing class.
>
> (Anis, FGD 8, Class 3B)

Anis highlighted the deadline for him to complete his writing tasks and reported his interest in submitting his tasks on time as this was considered as a motivational boost.

Given this consideration, a final year student reported a contrasting finding: "However there is a deadline like we usually we use Edmodo but there is still a lot of students push the work and the homework behind. So, I think there is always the time for being lazy" (Ruri, FGD 9, Graduate 1). Ruri described the condition of her class where deadlines in Edmodo were set so that no late submission was possible. However, her classmates still found a way to escape their writing tasks but risked missing the deadline for task submission.

5.2.1.6 Psychological factors

Before exploring the qualitative results relating to psychological factors, this section presents the quantitative findings from Item 9 of the students' questionnaire. The result for Item 9 showed a variety of responses as recorded in Figure 5.2.

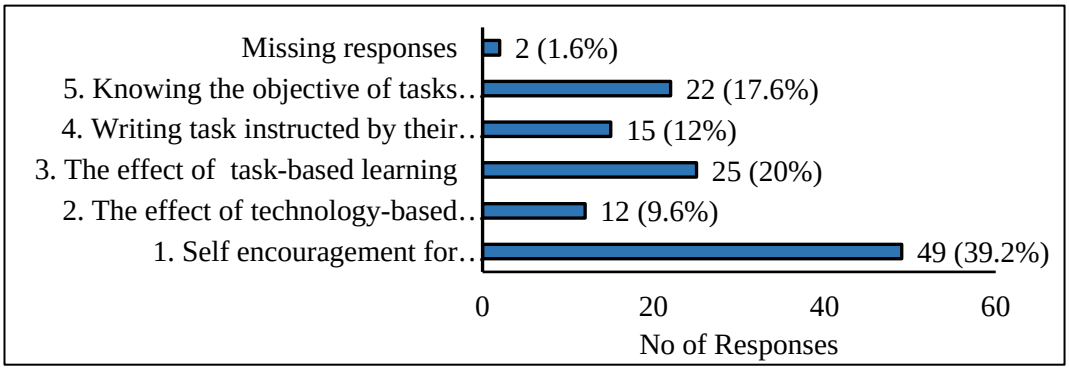

Figure 5.2 Reasons for a change in writing proficiency (Item 9)

As observed in Figure 5.2, 125 students responded to this item (M = 2.59, df = 1.541), forty-nine students (39.2%) recorded Point 1 as the most reported reason, followed by Points 3, 5, 4, and 2. Twenty-five students (20%) reported that they observed their writing skills change because of the effect of the learning process that was based on tasks. Twenty-two students (17.6%) opted for Point 5 (knowing the objective of tasks contributed to building up their motivation to do the tasks). In addition, fifteen students (12%) chose Point 4. Finally, twelve students (9.6%) ticked option 2 (the effect of technology-based activity-based activities implemented by the lecturers).

Talking about this issue, an FGD participant from Class 2A, Yesi, said that she was happy to complete her writing task on the computer, "For example when I type, like that, first when I have, I will have to type in a computer that makes. I have many ideas, my narrative text and that makes me happy" (Yesi, FGD 7). As Yesi from Class 2A described, she felt happy to learn, and she was able to generate many ideas in her mind using the computer rather than on paper. It was evident that the use of the computer generated a kind of psychological excitement in the minds of the students and this led to a positive understanding of the learning experience.

5.2.2 Motivating factors in Task-Based Learning (TBL)

Having explored quantitative findings relating to motivational factors, this section explores the qualitative data in more depth to obtain a richer understanding of the issues influencing RQ2. The findings from Item 7 were supported by the qualitative results.

Two discrete reasons emerged from this data. First, the TBL approach was motivating because of time considerations. Second, TBL contributed to the students' learning in positive ways.

5.2.2.1 Time considerations

A student from the FGD 9, who had studied in the department for about four years, reported that she preferred task-based learning:

> For me, I prefer the tasks, Miss but not to do it in the class. Some lecturers gave us tasks for next week, and they checked it at the next meeting. It means that it was the same as doing it in the class, the lecturers asked from each of us. So, I prefer to get the tasks. We did not postpone doing the task, Miss, but it was more about taking more time to think about the preparation for the task.
>
> (Ranti, FGD 9, Graduate 1)

An interesting finding was recorded from Ranti's response. According to Ranti, writing tasks were preferred. Ranti suggested that the task-based approach gave her more time to work on her tasks outside of the normal class hours and overall this gave her more time to manage the submission. Learning to write in English requires a significant amount of time and thus Ranti was aware that the task-based learning approach enabled her to extend the amount of time needed for her to complete the task. As Ranti further elaborated, "So I prefer to get the tasks. We did not postpone doing the task, Miss, but it was more about taking more time to think about the preparation for the task (Ranti, FGD 9, Graduate 1). Having been studying in the department for four years, Ranti complemented the TBL approach as it made her a punctual learner.

5.2.2.2 Holistic learning

Another positive response relating to the TBL approach to teaching writing skills was identified from FGD 10 by Yusni:

> Because I think doing the tasks is more, gives me more learning because working on exercises is only (unfinished statement). But I think it more difficult to just doing exercises because in learning process we need to do the task and because with always doing the task, it can make our understanding about the material better and we can practice and also understand what the lecturer, material from the lecturer than just doing exercises
>
> (Yusni, FGD 10, Graduate 2)

Yusni, from the final year group, complemented the finding from the previous FGD session. According to Yusni, doing tasks contributed to better learning. By comparing tasks to 'exercises', Yusni described the principle of task-based learning as described by Skehan (1989). It helped her understood the lesson she was studying by doing the sequence of tasks. Her preference for the TBL approach indicated that Yusni enjoyed the learning process and this improved her own understanding of her motivation. In addition, Yusni's point was further elaborated on by Indah from the same group:

> I like learning with the task because in the task the lecturer gives the examples before we do the task and I think example give the benefit for our work and after that, we can correct our task with the lecturer, and it gives the benefit. When we have a mistake like that, and it can improve our knowledge and actually about our experience, my experience, I like the writing skill because like that! Give the example, doing the task after that, correct the task, and give more benefit.
>
> (Indah, FGD 10, Graduate 2)

According to Indah, through task-based learning, she acquired a completed learning experience, and this improved her knowledge and experience. Interestingly, the TBL approach was observed to provide her with benefits in that she produced her writing and obtained valuable feedback in the process. Indah felt her learning was more personal as she received feedback on her mistake so that she understood her pace of learning; as a result, Indah reported that she enjoyed her learning in writing classes more.

5.2.2.3 Feedback-based learning

Furthermore, students mentioned that the feeling of a shared-learning experience was a key reason that contributed to their motivation to do their writing tasks. Shintia described her learning thorough Edmodo in the following extract:

> My opinion about using Edmodo, Edmodo is useful for effectiveness. I am trying to explain. If we send somethings on Edmodo, it will be seen by everyone, and we can share each other whether it is correct or not. For example, we make mistakes; others can help to correct it.
>
> (Shintia, FGD 1, Class 1A)

In this extract Shintia mentioned that her classmates read her posting in Edmodo and then sent responses. The feedback from her peers was considered helpful in this respect. Lastly, having a chance to receive peer feedback was considered motivating, "I think more motivation, Miss. because when we do something wrong, our friends correct it, it makes us more motivated to do better and make no mistake, there is no mistake, and

there is no more mistake, Miss" (Danang, FGD 4, Class 2A). Danang also mentioned that he became more motivated when he received feedback from his friends to revise his writing task.

5.2.3 Demotivating factors in Technology-mediated TBL classes

Relative to the demotivating factor, this study also discovered an interesting finding in relation to the lecturer's attitude as it affected the students' motivation in learning English writing skills. Item 8 investigated the reasons for losing motivation in this learning context by listing five reasons to choose: 1) the learning enthusiasm for peers, 2) family situations, 3) the use of technology makes English learning more interesting, 4) the lecturer's characters, and 5) other unknown factors, were also listed as responses for the statement on Item 8. The results showed different facts as recorded in Figure 5.3.

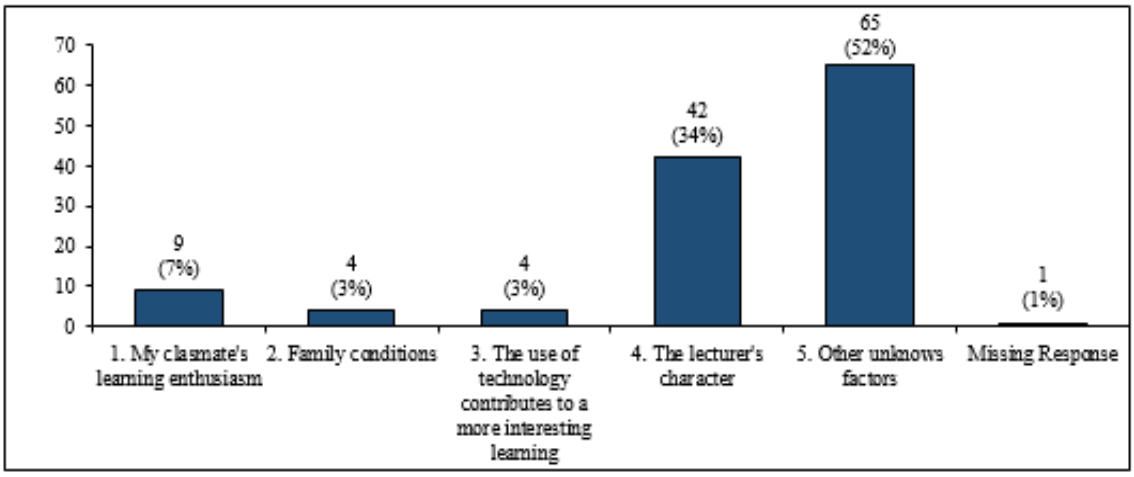

Figure 5.3 Reasons for becoming demotivated (Item 8)

As indicated in Figure 5.3, the results of Item 8 were completely different from Item 7 (M = 4.21, df = 1.142). Sixty-five students (52%) reported being demotivated for unknown reasons (Point 5), and forty-two students (34%) reported that they became demotivated by the teaching staff's character or attitudes (Point 4), such as a lecturer's interaction with them during the feedback or question and answer session.

The Kruskal-Wallis H test showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the reasons for becoming demotivated between the different classes, χ^2 (5) = 7. 219, p = 0.205, with a mean rank reasons for becoming demotivated score of 68.75 for Class 1A, 72.44 for Class 1B, 51.23 for Class 2A, 56.23 for Class 2B, 57.39 for Class 3A, and 66.50 for Class 3B. Among all classes, Class 1B and 3B had the highest rank means.

Table 5.2 A Kruskal Wallis result on Item 8

Classes by Year		N	Mean Rank
Reason for being demotivated	1A	22	68.75
	1B	26	72.44
	2A	20	51.23
	3A	14	57.39
Total		124	

Table 5.2 records no statistically significant differences between the classes in their reasons for being demotivated.

The current study found that there were no significant differences in the reasons for being motivated in the classes (χ^2 (5) = 2. 484, p = 0.779). However, a contrasting finding was recorded relating to the demotivating part between classes 1A, 1B, 2A, 2B, 3A, and 3B (χ^2 (5) = 7. 037, p = 0.218). The findings related to the online questionnaire Items 7 and 8 of part 3 (Reasons for Getting Motivated and Demotivated) have been presented.

5.2.3.1 Lecturers issues

A theme related to demotivating factors emerged from the qualitative analysis referring to issues with the lecturers. Students reported that their lecturers negatively affected their motivation. Baskoro, from Class 2A, reported that his motivation decreased because of the lecturer but he found the use of technology to be motivating for his learning:

> "Ya! I think my motivation decreases when the lecturer makes me bored in the class when they didn't teach us to learn something new. I think it bored me and if we use technology. It's good because it's new to me. It can make me more motivated.
>
> (Baskoro, FGD 7, Class 2A)

Baskoro's response suggests that the lecturer made him feel bored in the class as he was not taught new content. It was supported by Lina from Class 1B "It is not the mistake from learning method, but from the way the lecturer teaches it" (Lina, FGD5, Class 1B). As Lina highlighted, she was demotivated by the way her lecturers taught the class. From the observation, it was noted that lecturers' inability to control and show confidence in delivering the lesson created negative responses from the students in both classes.

From the same group, Afrisa mentioned "she does not understand that I do not get the point of what talks show about, but how should I say it as she responded like that

way to me when I expressed my confusion, she responded not accordingly positive. W*e* actually wanted to improve the English skill but the way the lecturer responded to me made me disappointed." (Afrisa, FGD5, Class 1B). As Afrisa explained, she was discouraged by the lecturer's way of responding to her enquiries.

5.2.3.2 Classmate issues

It was concluded that the peers' and lecturer's responses affected their motivation negatively. Technology might ease their tasks, but human factors influenced their psychological drive as explicitly described by Shintia in the following extract:

> For example, I have friends next to me browsing the Internet. So, I do not focus. It makes me want to ask "what are you looking at, what are you doing? I want to look at her screen as well. So, I do not focus to study, to learn writing. It consumes a lot of concentration that requires a lot of energy from our mind. We work hard to think of what we have to write, but a friend next to us is disturbing us, so we lost concentration.
>
> (Shintia, FGD 1, Class 1A)

Shintia explained that she became distracted from her writing because of the lack of discipline from her friends. She considered this as an indirect effect of the use of technology in the writing classes. Moreover, Shintia reported other demotivating factors:

> It is worsened by the noise that the classmate makes. If the surrounding is noisy, classmates are busy talking, making noise that can cause us losing our concentration and lose the idea to write. I became distracted, and I became less motivated to do my writing task. So, we cannot stay still to concentrate.
>
> (Shintia, FGD 1, Class 1A)

In her explanation of the human factors affecting her concentration, Shintia answered a question about her motivation to learn in a task-based writing module which was affected by her classmates. According to Shintia, she could not continue her writing because of the noise made by her classmates. In this case, she needed a silent classroom that enabled her to concentrate better to complete her writing tasks. Shintia's situation indicated that learning writing skills required more effort than other skills. However, this current research noted that this factor might apply to any subject that Shintia and other students in general needed to study.

5.2.3.3 Other issues

The quantitative data from Item 8 of the students' questionnaire indicated that sixty-five students (52%) were demotivated for unknown reasons (Point 5). However, no data from the FGDs indicated correlated finding. As reported in the previous sections (5.2.1 5.2.2, and 5.2.3), students' motivation was affected by the reactions from their lecturers and their classmates.

As has been presented in the findings section, the results showed that students were motivated by learning through technology-mediated task-based learning to write in this institution. Item 7 recorded that the use of technology and tasks in learning to write in a vocational context helped students to feel better about their English writing ability. This finding was supported by the FGD results. In contrast, the students were demotivated for unknown reasons (Item 8), such as technical difficulties during the classroom activities. Moreover, self-determination was reported as a reason for producing an improvement in their writing skills (Item 9).

5.2.3.4 Students' perceptions

This part covers the perceptions that students reported in the students' questionnaire. Five items of the questionnaire recorded students' perception of their experience in learning writing skills through technology-mediated task-based approaches. They are Items 4, 5, 6, 9, 13, and 14. The first part covers findings relating to students' perception of the use of tasks in their writing classes in part 2 (Items 4, 5 and 6). The second part of the students' perception related to the results of the students' questionnaire Item 9 (perceptions of the changes in writing skills). The last part discusses the findings of the use of technology to facilitate writing task completion from the student questionnaire in Part 5 (Items 13 and 14).

Firstly, their perception of the motivation required for English learning and writing task completion was explored in part 2 of the questionnaire: Items 4, 5, and 6. Items 5 and 6 concerned the effects of the TBL approach and technology-mediated learning on language learning motivation. Meanwhile, Item 4 explored the effect of motivation on the writing task, which was used to compare the variables.

For Item 4, students were requested to express their agreement on whether their motivation affected their eagerness to do their writing tasks positively on a scale of 1 –

6. The responses to the statement, “My motivation affected my willingness to do my writing task positively”, are summarised in Figure 5. 4.

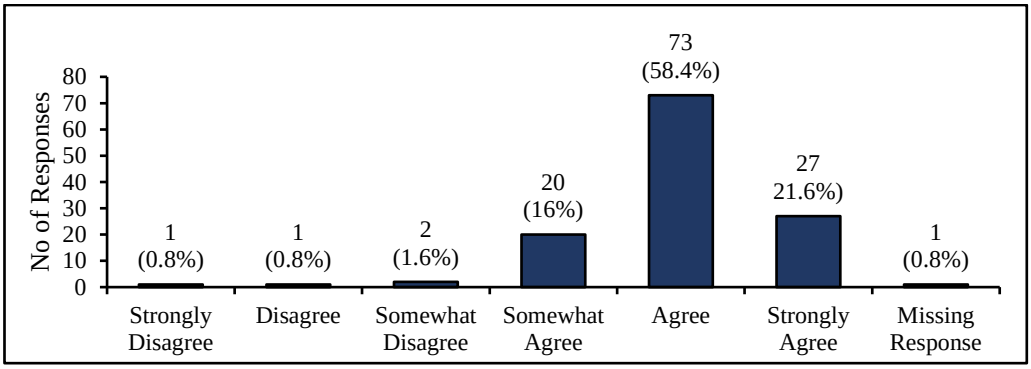

Figure 5.4 "My motivation in learning English affects positively on my willingness to work on my writing tasks (Item 4)

Figure 5.4 presents the details of the findings of students' responses to the online questionnaire Item 4. The highest response indicated that seventy-three students (58.4%) agreed (Point 5) with the statement, indicating that being motivated to learn English helped them in performing their writing tasks. In addition, one student (1%) reported "Strongly Disagree" (Point 1). The students in this study believed that being motivated to learn English helped them in their writing skills classes.

A significant difference was recorded in the perception of the motivational effects on writing tasks between the different groups, regardless of which motivation level the students belonged to, χ^2 (4) = 16. 482, p = 0.002, with a mean rank perception on motivation effect on writing task score 1,00 for Low motivation, 61.00 for “Somewhat Low” motivation, 46.16 for “Somewhat High” motivation, 54.16 for “High motivation”, and 71.68 for “Very High” motivation. Table 5.3 records the significant differences between motivation levels.

Table 5.3 Differences in perception of motivation effect on writing task

Motivation Level		N	Mean Rank
Perception of motivation effect on writing task	Low	1	1.00
	Somewhat Low	1	61.00
	Somewhat High	16	46.16
	High	40	54.16
	Very High	65	71.68
	Total	123	

Table 5.3 records the significant differences in students’ perception of the motivational effect on writing tasks between each level of motivation. Another significant aspect of the differences in motivational levels was found in the results of Item 5.

The second perception was investigated with reference to Item 5 (students' perception of the effect of tasks on motivation). The statement, "Working on English writing tasks caused me to be more motivated to improve my English writing skills", was used to find out whether students associated working on their writing tasks as a way of helping them to improve their motivation. The answers to this question were anchored in a 1-6 Likert scale ranging from "Strong Disagreement" to "Strong Agreement" with the statement (M = 5.06, df = 0.878). Details of these findings are shown in Figure 5.5.

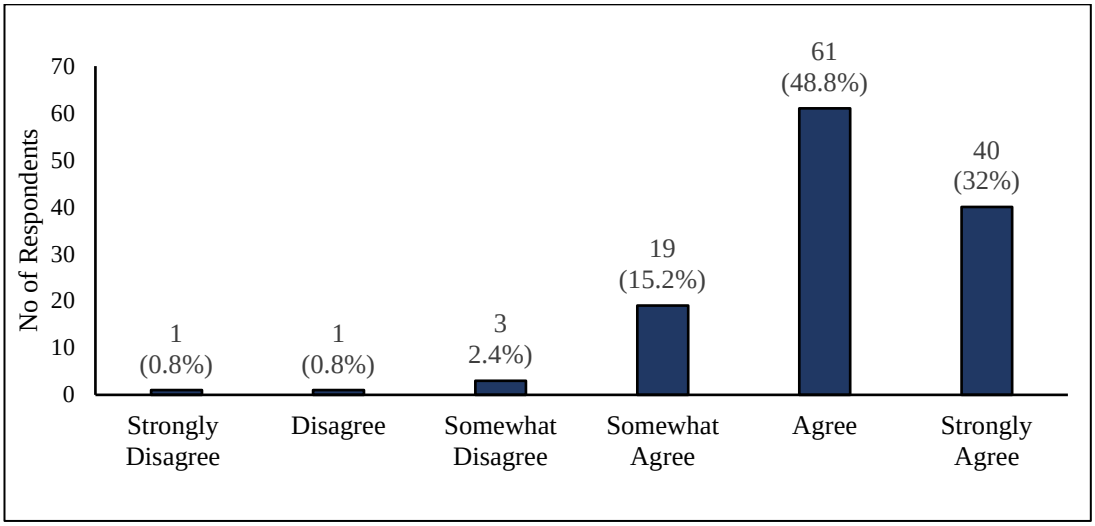

Figure 5.5 Perception of the effect of tasks on motivation (Item 5)

As indicated in Figure 5.5, responses for the agree options dominated the findings. 120 students (96%) chose, "Somewhat Agree" (15.2%, n = 19), "Agree" (48.8%, n = 61), and "Strongly Agree" (40%, n = 40). The students agreed with the statement that working on writing tasks motivated them to improve their English writing skills. In contrast, one student (1%) reported "Strongly Disagree" with the statement. In total, only 4% of the students (n = 5) chose the disagree options. It is observable from Figure 5.5 that the students agreed that learning from the process of writing affected the students' motivation.

The second significant finding was found on perceptions relating to the effects of tasks on motivation χ^2 (4) = 18.770, p = 0.001, with a mean perception on the effect of tasks on motivation score of 1.00 for Low Motivation, 15.00 for Somewhat Low motivation, for 42.44 for Somewhat High motivation, 56.85 for High motivation, and 72.68 for Very High motivation (see Table 5.4 for details).

Table 5.4 Differences in perception of the effect of task on motivation

Motivation Level		N	Mean Rank
Perception of the effect of task on motivation	Low	1	1.00
	Somewhat Low	1	15.00
	Somewhat High	16	42.44
	High	41	56.85
	Very High	65	72.68
	Total	124	

Table 5.4 presents the Kruskal-Wallis test result indicating a significant difference among motivation levels of the students' perception of the effects of tasks on their motivation to learn English in writing classes.

Next, the last item in this section is Item 6. This item recorded students' responses to the statement, "The use of technology in performing writing tasks makes the writing activities more fun". Students were invited to express their disagreement or agreement in terms of the Likert Scale from 1-6 ranging from "Strong Disagreement" on Point 1 to "Strong Agreement" on Point 6 (M = 5.30, df = 0.783). Similar to Item 5, high frequencies were recorded on the agreeing options.

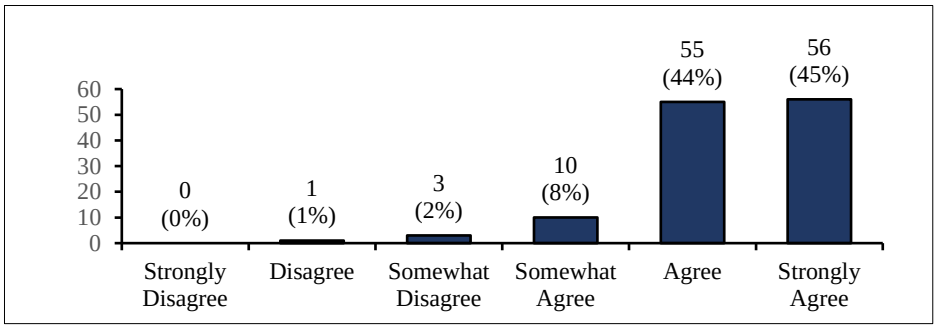

Figure 5.6 Perception on the effect of technology on motivation (Item 6)

As indicated in Figure 5.6, no students strongly disagreed (Point 1) with the statement that the use of technology in doing writing tasks caused the practice of writing in English to become more interesting. Despite one student (1%), expressing disagreement (Point 2) and three students (2%) stating slight disagreement (Point 3), ten students (8%) responded with slight agreement.

In contrast, fifty-five students (44%) indicated their agreement (Point 5) and fifty-six students (44.8%) expressed their strong agreement (Point 6). Despite investigating students' perception of the effect of technology on their motivation, the questionnaire was also designed to identify reasons for being motivated and

demotivated related to the learning of English writing skills through technology and tasks. Thus, this questionnaire item confirmed that motivation to learn English writing skills was affected by the motivation for English learning.

Thirdly, there was a significant difference in students' perception of the effect of technology on motivation $\chi^2(4) = 16.058$, $p = 0.003$, with a mean perception on the effect of technology on motivation scores of 97.00 for Low Motivation, 42.00 for Somewhat Low motivation, 42.22 for Somewhat High motivation, 52.18 for High motivation and 72.80 for Very High motivation.

Table 5.5 Differences in perception on the effect of technology on motivation

Motivation Level		N	Mean Rank
Perception of the effect of technology on motivation	Low	1	97.00
	Somewhat Low	1	42.00
	Somewhat High	16	46.22
	High	41	52.18
	Very High	65	72.80
	Total	124	

A significant difference between motivation levels on the perception of the effect of technology on motivation was recorded in Table 5.5.

The third perception recorded relates to Item 9 (perception of the changes in writing skills). Besides reasons for being motivated (Item 7) and demotivated (Item 8), students were requested to evaluate whether they noticed changes in their English writing abilities and their opinion about the reason for the changes. Item 9 was designed for this purpose. There were five options given as closed-ended responses. These responses were used to comment on the statement indicating the reasons for them to notice the changes in their ability without specifying whether it was an improvement or a decrease. Point 1 referred to students' own determination for improving English writing proficiency. Point 2 reflected the influence of the use of educational technology administered by their lecturers in every module. Point 3 indicated the impact of task-based learning. Point 4 referred to the administration of writing tasks through information technology administered by their lecturers. The last point was "having realised about the aims of doing tasks helps me to motivate myself in completing the task assigned by the lecturers.

Different from the previous findings relating to perception, the result for Item 9 showed varieties of responses as recorded in Figure 5.7.

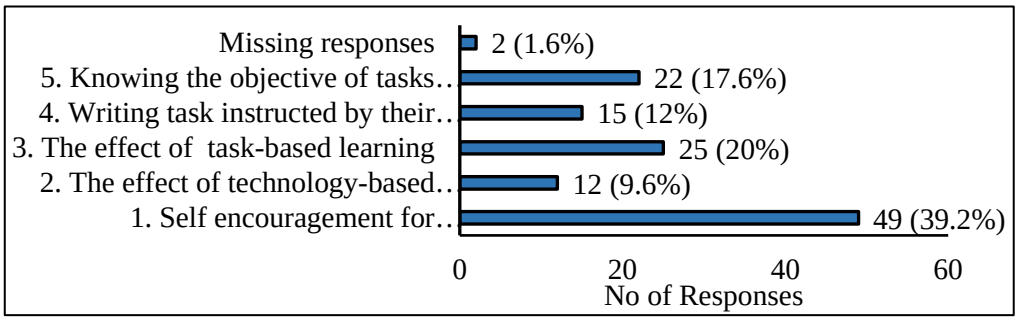

Figure 5.7 Reasons for a change in writing proficiency (Item 9)

As observed from Figure 5.7, 125 students responded to this item (M = 2.59, df = 1.541), forty-nine students (39.2%) recorded Point 1 as the most reported reason, followed by Points 3, 5, 4, and 2. Twenty-five students (20%) reported that they observed their writing skills had changed because of the effect of the learning process that was based on tasks. Twenty-two students (17.6%) opted for Point 5 (knowing the objective of tasks contributed to building up their motivation to do the tasks). In addition, fifteen students (12%) chose Point 4. Finally, twelve students (9.6%) ticked option 2 (the effect of technology-based activity-based activities implemented by the lecturers).

However, a Kruskal-Wallis H test showed that there were no significant differences between classes regarding their perceptions related to Item 9 (χ^2 (5) = 7.037, p = 0.218 and on the motivations levels groups (χ^2 (4) = 8.115, p = 0.087). These findings indicated that all classes agreed that the students believed that they had made some changes in their English writing skills.

Next, a detailed account of students' perception of the use of technology was explored in the following part. Another result from the questionnaire addressed the point about students' perception of non-technology utilisation (part 5). Two students' questionnaire Items (13 and 14), which used five and seven-point Likert Scale responses (part 5), addressed the point about students' perception of non-technology utilisation. These items were aimed at recording students' responses related to opposing the use of non-technology equipment and its effects on students' ability to accomplish their writing tasks.

Item 13 was administered to discover whether students lost interest in completing their writing tasks when they had no access to technological resources. A

five-point scale (from strongly disagree to agree strongly), indicating students' perceptions of the statement, was provided. The responses for the statement, "When I was not allowed to use technology in completing my task, I lost my interest in doing the task", varied (M = 3.01, df = 1.200). Interestingly, twenty-eight students (22%) indicated their uncertainty by choosing option 3 (Undecided). Culturally, Indonesian students were not used to expressing their comments openly. They might have chosen this option for a neutral position in order to avoid making a firm choice.

The differences between "disagree" and "agree" are highlighted in Figure 5.8.

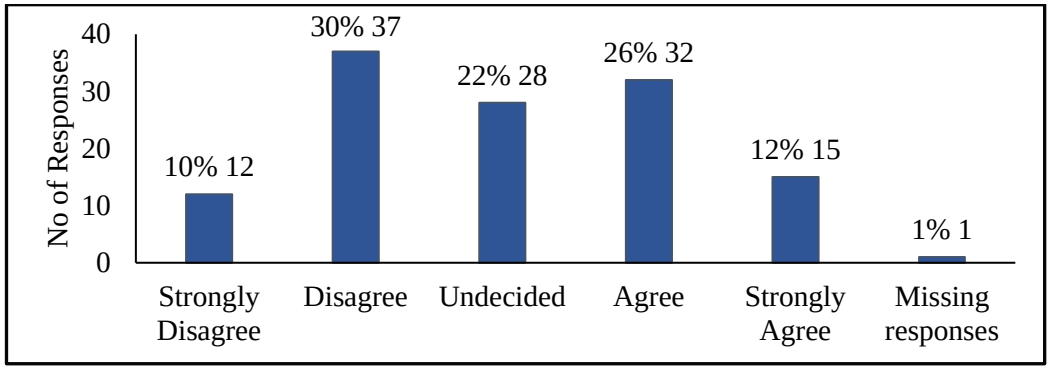

Figure 5.8 Perception of the effect of non-technology utilisation on motivation to complete the task (Item 13)

Figure 5.8 presents the differences in the perceptions about the use of non-technology aids in completing the writing tasks. The highest recorded response was for Point 2. Thirty-seven students (30%) reported their disagreement that the use of non-technology aids caused a loss of interest in completing their writing tasks. The students disagreed with the statement in Item 13. It was detected that students considered that the use of technology did not affect their motivation in writing classes regardless of having access to PCs or not. This finding alerted the researcher to observe students' actual learning in the classroom to seek an explanation for the perception. It was noted that investigating the gap between perception and the real attitude toward the learning was a consequence of this finding.

Moreover, thirty-two students (26%) agreed with this statement. Interestingly, 4% of students were in the position of strong disagreement relating to the absence of technology, which caused them to lose their interest in doing their writing tasks. It meant that they did not find that studying without the use of technology was a hindrance to their learning. If these responses were reduced to only two responses, "Agree" and "Disagree", the "Disagree" responses outnumbered the "Agree" item.

However, the case was different for the strong preferences. The “Strongly Disagree” responses (10%) were less than the “strongly agree” (12%). The count was 12:15. The findings arising from this questionnaire item indicated that students did not have an opinion about how they wanted to learn English writing skills. They were more dependent on the lecturers’ teaching design and followed the instructions literally. Meanwhile, no responses were recorded for both “Somewhat Disagree” and “Agree”.

Let us consider a difference for this Item 13. Significant differences were found for classes (χ^2 (5) = 12. 085, p = 0.034) and motivation level (χ^2 (4) = 11. 310, p = 0.023). As one of the classes was taught without utilising PCs, the significant difference in classes should be exposed (see Table 5.6 for the details).

Table 5.6 The difference significance of Item 13

Classes by Year		N	Mean Rank
Perception on the effect of non-technology utilisation on motivation to complete the task	1A	22	43.09
	1B	26	59.19
	2A	20	59.40
	2B	26	72.21
	3A	14	74.18
	3B	16	72.44
	Total	124	

Interestingly, there was a significant difference in the mean ranks between 2A and 2B counted by 12.8 difference as shown in Table 5.6. This difference was expected only between 1A and 1B as Class 1B was the only class that was limited in the use of PCs. Even though they studied in a multimedia laboratory where access to PCs and the internet connection were available, they were banned from using the PCs. Students from this class switched from the use of PCs to the use of their mobile phone and used pens, pencils, and books as the portfolio for their writing tasks.

The last result on the perception was from the Item 14 (M = 4.42, df = 1.623). In contrast to the finding for the Item 13, the responses for the agree points exceeded the disagree option by 17.6%. However, the result for the ‘undecided’ exceeded the agree and disagree options. Details of the responses are presented in Figure 5.9.

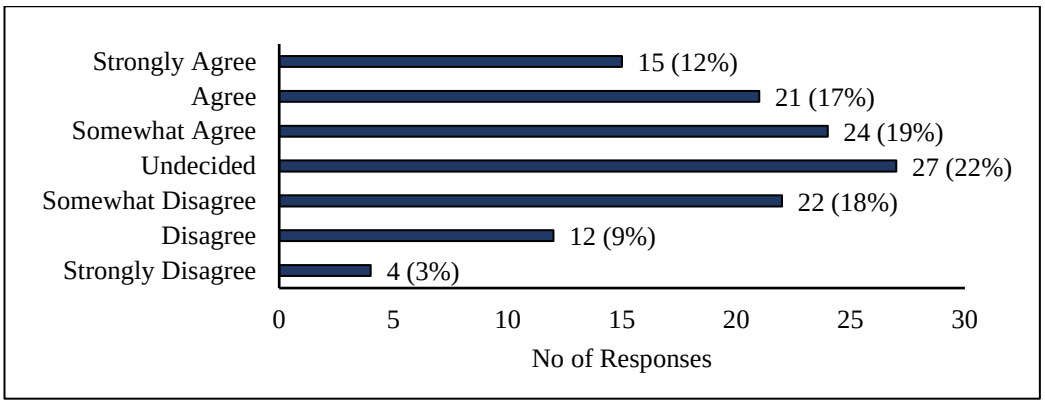

Figure 5.9 Perception of the technology utilisation in writing classes is replaceable with the pens, pencils, and paper (Item 14)

Figure 5.9 shows that twenty-seven students (22%) opted to be undecided when they were asked to respond to the statement "the utilisation of technology for English writing classes can be replaced by pens, pencils, and paper. In addition, the tendency for being uncertain was also indicated by 19% of the students (n=24) that chose 'Somewhat Agree'. Furthermore, twenty-two student (18%) opted for 'Somewhat Disagree'. They indicated strong disagreement with the banning of technology in their learning in writing classes as this caused a loss of interest in completing the writing tasks.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was run to check the significance of the differences. In contrast to the findings from Item 13, there was no significant difference between classes identified in Item 14. Details of the differences in the mean ranks is presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 The mean rank results for Item 14

Classes by Year		N	Mean Rank
Perception on the use of non-technology in completing tasks	1A	22	66.34
	1B	26	62.38
	2A	20	57.38
	2B	26	72.77
	3A	14	58.89
	3B	17	54.68
	Total	125	

Table 5.7 presents the Kruskal-Wallis test of Item 14. It was found that there was no significant difference between the classes, χ^2 (5) = 3. 575, p = 0.585, with a mean rank reasons for becoming demotivated score of 66.34 for Class 1A, 62.38 for Class 1B, 57.38 for Class 2A, 72.77 for Class 2B, 58.89 for Class 3A, and 54.68 for Class 3B. Class 1B was the only class that was limited in the use of PCs. Even though they

studied in a multimedia laboratory where access to PCs and the internet connection were available, they were not banned from using the PCs. Students from this class switched the function of PCs to their mobile phone and used pens, pencils, and books as the portfolio for their writing tasks. From this finding, the difference between 1A and 1B was not significant.

Secondly, there was a significant difference found in Item 14, χ^2 (4) = 11. 310, p = 0.023, with a mean rank perception on the effect of non-technology utilization to complete the task score 117,00 for "Low" motivation, 63.50 for "Somewhat Low" motivation, 83.50 for "Somewhat High" motivation, 64.66 for "High motivation", and 55.12 for "Very High" motivation.

Table 5.8 A Kruskal-Wallis test results for Item 14

Motivation Level		N	Mean Rank
Perception of the use of non-technology in completing tasks	Low	1	2.50
	Somewhat Low	1	51.50
	Somewhat High	16	60.31
	High	41	67.09
	Very High	65	61.24
	Total	124	
Chi-Square			3.800
df			4
Asymp. Sig.			0.434

As indicated in Table 5.8, there was no significant difference found for Item 14.

In summary, Item 5 recorded that 48.8% of the students agreed that learning English writing skills through the task-based learning approach affected their motivation to learn the skills. Secondly, it was found that 45% of the students strongly agreed that the use of technology affected their motivation to complete their writing tasks as investigated in the students' questionnaire Item 6. Thirdly, from the Item 13, it was indicated that 30% of the students disagreed that the use of non-technology in their learning affected their motivation. However, they showed their uncertainty about stopping the use of technology in their writing classes. When an offer for using only pens, pencils and paper as suggested in Item 14, the highest response that students indicated as "undecided" (30%).

As has been presented in the inferential statistics section, the results showed that students were motivated by learning through technology-mediated task-based learning to write in this institution. In contrast, they were demotivated for unknown reasons that

needed further exploration qualitatively. The findings relating to the last variable in part 3 (Item 9) supported this conclusion. On this part, students reported their perception of the changes in their writing skills. They reported that self-determination helped them. However, this finding was weak due to the fact that the questionnaire item was not designed to investigate details of the kinds of changes that the students noticed in their writing skills. Nevertheless, Item 7 recorded that the use of technology and tasks in learning to write in a vocational context helped students to feel better about their English writing ability.

This section has covered the findings from the students' perspective gathered from the FGDs. It has attempted to describe the findings related to the factors that affect students' motivation in learning writing modules through the technology-mediated task-based ESP context. Five factors were identified: Edmodo, economic and environmental reasoning, time efficiency, easy access to vocabulary resources, and psychological issues. The section that follows moves onto discuss the findings by relating them to the research literature.

5.3 Findings of RQ3: The way students complete technology-mediated TBL writing tasks

This section explores findings relating to research question 3: How do students complete technology-mediated TBL writing tasks? The objective is to design guidelines for the teaching of writing technology-mediated tasks in English that are tailored to the local conditions. This study focusses on the technical aspects of technology-mediated TBL in the writing skills context. Linguistic processes are excluded but identified as a prospective area for further research. This section reports the findings on the tools and strategies used by the students that related to narrative writing task completion and is organised by themes. Classifying each theme based on its task sequence was considered more important than comparing the differences between classes as both PCs and smartphones were used interchangeably. The results showed no significant differences between the devices students used to facilitate their work in the writing tasks. The students from the PC-based classes also utilised their smartphones applications for vocabulary searching. As did the students from the non-PC class. As this study does not cover the linguistic aspects of the students' writing skills development, the findings explored in this section focus on the technical aspects of the learning process.

The results of the analysis for this third research question are divided into Section 5.3.1 tools for writing task completion and Section 5.3.2 strategies for writing task completion.

5.3.1 Tools for writing task completion

The tools used by the students during the two task cycles are reported and the results from the three-large themes: motivation, TBL and technology-mediated learning in teaching writing skills are described. It does not discuss the tools that the lecturers used. Furthermore, this study does not cover the reason why the students used the tools and the way they used them in detail. This study only describes the results from the general themes, as it was designed as an exploratory study that combines the themes. The findings in this section are organised by tools, not by the task phases as the tools were used in every task cycle.

Two questionnaire items were used to record students' responses regarding the tools that they utilised in their learning. The first finding was recorded in Item 14 of the questionnaire and measured the extent to which students agreed that the use of technology could replace the use of pens, pencils and paper in completing the writing tasks. A seven-point Likert Scale was used to facilitate the responses ranging from 1 (completely agree) to 7 (completely disagree).

Table 5.9 Item 14 (The use of technology in learning how to write in English can be replaced by pens, pencils, paper, and printed dictionaries)

	Class 1A (PC-Based)		Class 1B (non-PC-Based)	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	0	0%	1	4%
Disagree	3	14%	1	4%
Somewhat Disagree	5	23%	7	27%
Undecided	2	9%	6	23%
Somewhat Agree	3	14%	3	12%
Agree	6	27%	4	15%
Strongly Agree	3	14%	4	15%
Total	22	100%	26	100%
			48	

As recorded in Table 5.9, students from the technology class (1A) tended to agree that the use of pens, pencil, paper and printed dictionaries could replace the use of computer technology. Interestingly, the result did not agree with the Hypothesis 2 (H2-There is a significant difference between the technology group that learned to write through the use of PCs and the non-PCs group) that students might disagree with the statement. This expectation was due to the fact that the students studied their writing module with the use of computer technology and utilised smartphones to access the vocabulary-seeking tools. It was assumed that the students would prefer the use of technology rather than pens, pencil, paper and printed dictionaries. These statistical findings recorded contrasting facts compared to the findings from the focus group.

How students acquired relevant vocabulary for their writing was investigated in Item 12 (the tools that I used to utilise in finding the right words to assist me in completing my writing task is**)**. In this item students were asked to choose one from the seven options provided: 1) online dictionaries on smartphones, 2) Google Translate through PC and smartphones, 3) conventionally printed dictionaries, 4) offline dictionaries on PCs, 5) asking peers, the teaching staff, or other parties who might know English better, 6) taking benefits from online feedback through online media helps in improving the writing quality, and 7) websites are the most relevant references for starting writing. As students in Year 1 were divided into PC-based (1A) and non-PC-based (1B) classes, it was expected that the aids they used for their writing tasks would be different.

Table 5.10 The tools chosen by the Year 1 group

The Tools Chosen	Class 1A (PC-Based)		Class 1B (non-PC-Based)	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Online applications on my smartphone	6	29%	11	42%
Google translate on my smartphones and PC	3	14%	6	23%
Conventional printed dictionaries	6	29%	5	19%
Offline dictionary software on PCs	2	10%	0	0%
Taking advantage by asking from classmates, lecturers, or other people	2	10%	4	15%
Peer-feedback through online media helped me a lot in improving the quality of my writing	0	0%	0	0%
Online websites are my references before starting to write	2	10%	0	0%
Total	21	100%	26	100%

Table 5.10 presents a breakdown of the tools chosen by students in Class 1A and 1B (47 students in total). Firstly, the findings from the responses of the students from Class 1A recorded the highest results were online applications on mobile phones and conventional printed dictionaries, with 29% for each option 1 and 2. Also, it was found that the students of the non-technology class (1B) were dependent on the use of online applications via their mobile phones; responses for these students were 42% for Google Translate on mobile phones and 23% for PCs. This group of students, who were not supposed to use computer technology in their learning, had swapped their need for technology to the use of smartphone technology. Interestingly and ironically, it was the technology-based group that utilised printed dictionaries.

A summary of the tools utilised in the complete TBL cycle is shown in Figure 5.10.

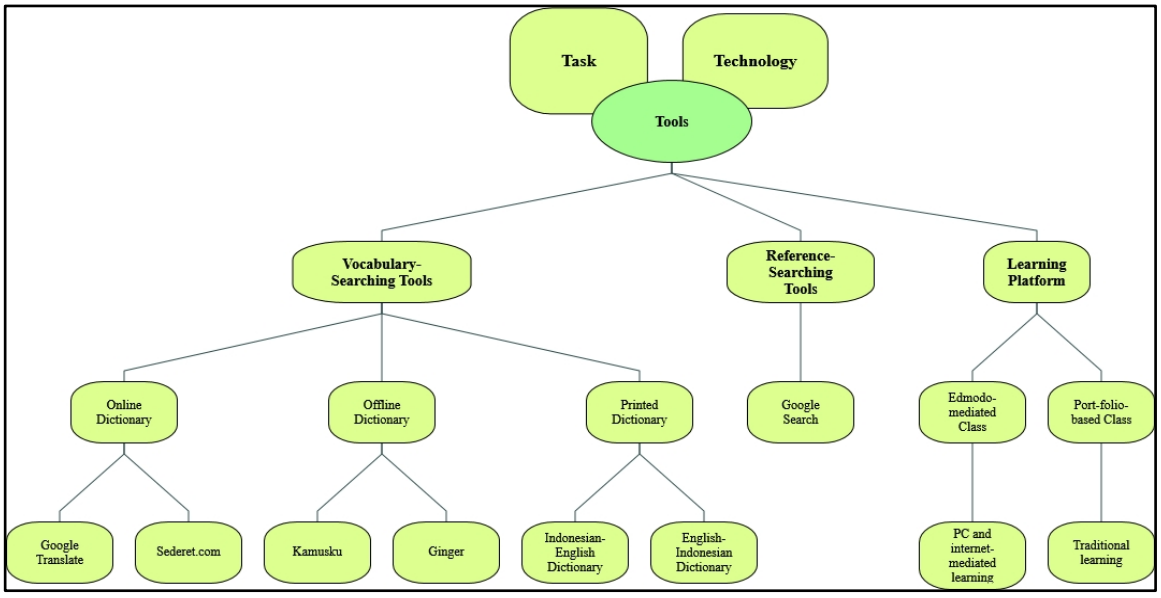

Figure 5.10 Tools for writing skills technology-mediated TBL used by students of all year groups

Figure 5.10 summarises the tools that were used by students in completing their writing tasks in both groups. Throughout the study cycle, three main tools were utilised: 1) vocabulary-searching, 2) reference-searching tools, and 3) learning platforms as assigned by the lecturers. Further discussion of each tool is explored in the following subsections. The nine tools mentioned by Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, and Freynik (2014) were used from the Pre-Task to the Language Focus cycles of the writing skills' technology-mediated TBLT learning process: a stand-alone PC with

overhead projector, CD-ROMs, interactive whiteboard, email, DVDs, computer laboratory, Learning Management Systems (LMS) such as Blackboard, mobile phones, and Web 2.0 applications.

5.3.1.1 Computer laboratory

First, a computer laboratory was used for the entire period of both classes. The Writing 1 Module was conducted in a multimedia laboratory. It was a 4x4 m^2 room with windows on the left side. It was located on the ground floor of a three-storey building in Building E of the Padang State Polytechnic complex.

Figure 5.11 The Multimedia Laboratory in Building E

One of the computer laboratories is located in Building E as described in Figure 5.11. Other laboratories are located on the third floor of a new building in front of this building. These data were taken from the class observation in Class 1B.

Figure 5.12 The Multimedia Laboratory in the new building

Figure 5.12 shows the other laboratory used for Technical Writing 1 classes. Each multimedia computer laboratory had 27 students' booths equipped with Windows-based PCs and monitors with headsets, 2 teachers' PCs, an overhead projector, a screen projector, a standard whiteboard, language laboratory built-in console, and two air conditioners.

5.3.1.2 Lecturer's PCs and a projector

The second tools were the lecturers' teaching equipment. This package included PCs with a projector for the lecturers to deliver the materials. The lecturer used this equipment by projecting the PowerPoint Presentation (PPT) slides through the digital projector hanging in the middle of the classroom to deliver their teaching materials and to give instruction for the writing tasks. This teaching media was used to guide students during the pre-task cycle. It helped students to understand the tasks and instruction, provided guided steps of the learning, and affected the writing tasks for students in both types of classes. It also helped both the lecturers and the students to begin the tasks. These tools were mostly used during the pre-task and language focus cycles.

5.3.1.3 Web 2.0

The Web 2.0 applications used for learning in the study were e-portfolio and search engines. The e-portfolio used was Edmodo and Google Search was the main search engine for information seeking. Lecturers used Edmodo as a portfolio to collect students' writing during the semester (Weigle, 2002).

First, the students of Class 1A used Edmodo to mediate learning. Using Edmodo, the lecturers shared the teaching and learning materials. The students accessed them and saved them to their "backpack" folder. This was done during the pre-task cycle. In the task cycle (second phase), Edmodo was used for submitting the work, providing comments, and sharing feedback. However, it was not in real use during the last task cycle.

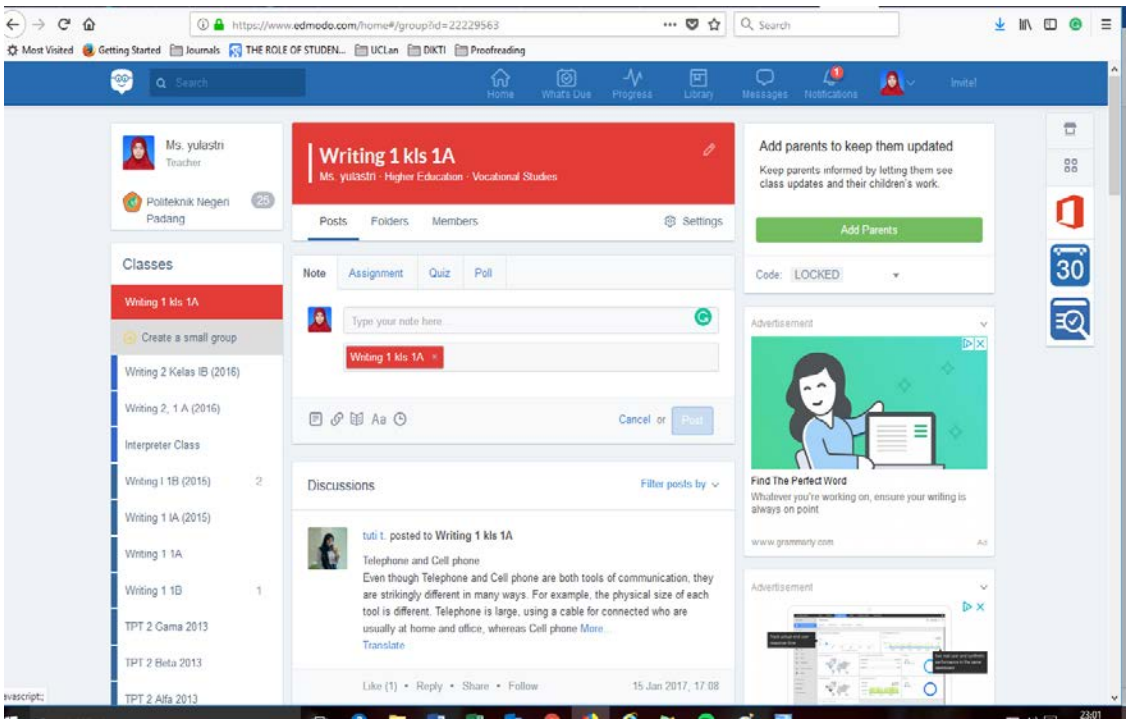

Figure 5.13 Edmodo, a Facebook-like layout, as a learning platform

Figure 5.13 shows the main feature of Edmodo as the learning platform for Class 1A. Edmodo resembles Facebook, which also had a similar function for the students (Okumura, 2017). It has many of the same colours and general functions as Facebook. For example, it has a wall for posting comments and other functions similar to the Facebook wall, such as *liking*, *replying*, *sharing*, and *following*. It helped students to communicate their ideas and share feedback on their writing tasks.

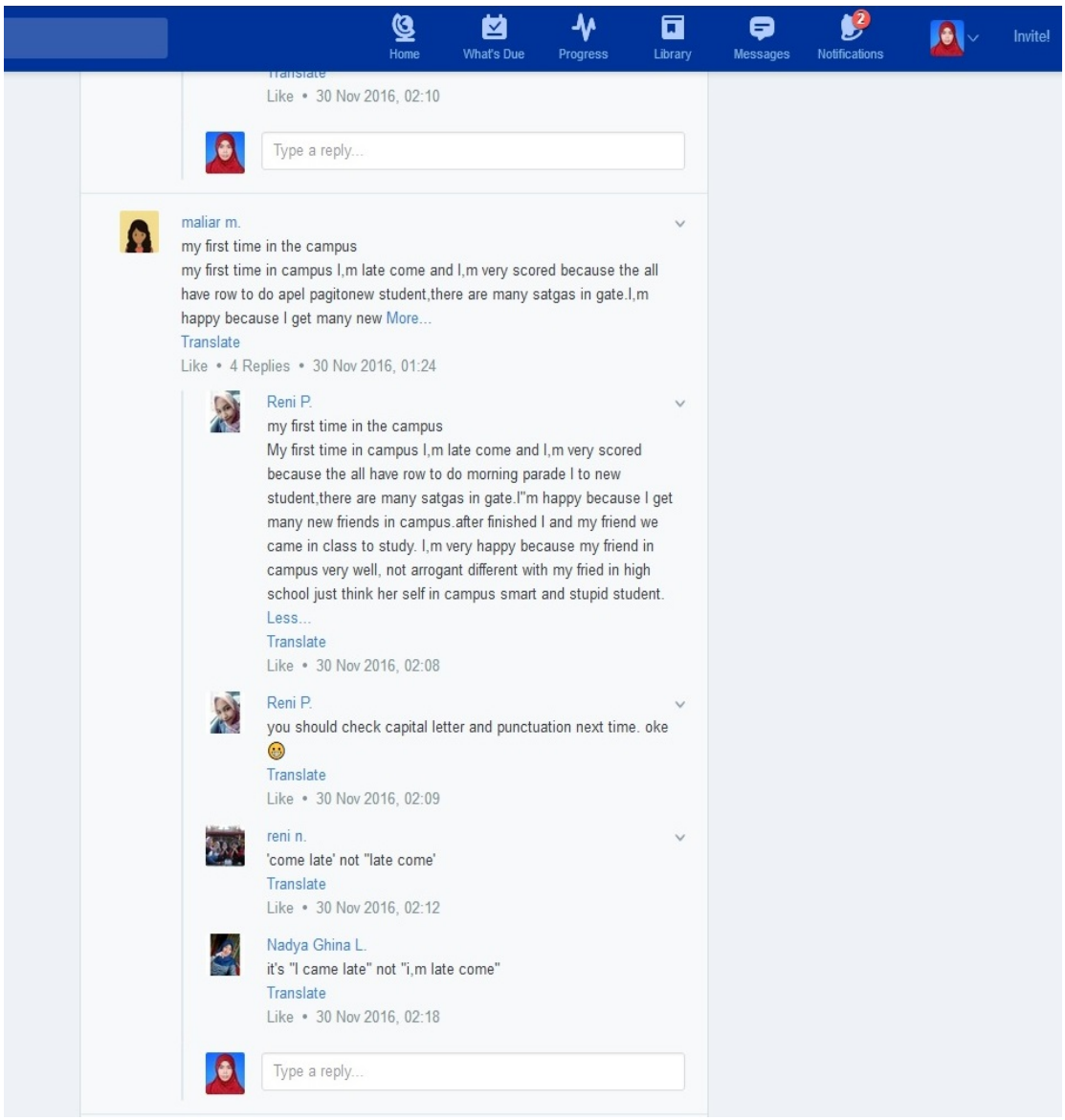

Figure 5.14 The peer feedback activities in Edmodo

Students' peer feedback activities were recorded in Edmodo as Figure 5.14 shows. This screenshot shows two female students provide feedback to the student who submitted the writing sample. Meanwhile, students of Class 1B were limited in their use of PCs as they used manual hand-writing books for their Writing Module portfolio. Both Edmodo and the books functioned as portfolios for their writing tasks in this respect.

A student from Class 1A reported that using Edmodo in her learning eased the writing task: "When we use the Edmodo, we will [complete] the writing task easier" (Lulu, FGD 1). As Lulu mentioned, she found that it was easier to work on her writing when she was working on Edmodo through her PC-facilitated task.

Google was the favourite search engine used extensively by all the students from six classes including those from the non-PC-based class and was mentioned in eight FGD sessions (Regina in FGD 1, Tari in FGD 4, Yenida in FGD 6, Baskoro and

Wanofri in FGD 7, Mutiara, Dony and Anis in FGD 8, Haliza in FGD 9, and Yusni and Melur in FGD 10). Haliza from FGD 9 mentioned, “Because we used Internet technology. When we access the Internet, we can ask *‘Mbah’* Google everything” (Haliza, FGD 9, Graduate 1). As she mentioned, Google was the most useful search engine for the students when they wanted to look for information. The term *‘Mbah’* translated literally to ‘Grandad’. In this context, ‘Grandad’ Google, represents a respected senior person who is knowledgeable and is someone that everyone feels comfortable asking for information.

5.3.1.4 Dictionaries

The fourth tool used was a dictionary. Students from all classes used dictionaries, both printed, offline, and online dictionaries on PCs and smartphones, as their main tools during all of the task sessions. This was because students had limited English vocabulary for everyday usage. Students in Year 1 groups needed basic daily English usage to describe general matters in their writing. Students in the Year 2 groups needed more technical vocabulary for English correspondences. Year 3 students needed advanced vocabulary related to news and translation glossaries. They needed the tools to understand the writing samples provided by the lecturers in the PPT slides and on the screen display. By checking in their dictionaries, they could access the meanings for words without asking their lecturers. These dictionaries were both printed and digital. Students used online and offline dictionaries on PCs and smartphones which suited their learning situation. Students in the PC-based class experienced connection loss or power cuts sometimes; in this case they switched to their smartphones to acquire access to the online and offline dictionaries. For the non-PC-based class, they relied on the smartphones and the printed dictionaries. However, this study did not record details of the specific reasons for the preferences for using certain tools. This tool was used throughout the three task cycles and it was evident that students were dependent on dictionaries.

During the task cycle, students from PC-based classes also prepared their writing by researching from the Internet for further samples of narrative writing. Those from the non-PC-based class (1B) used their smartphones for the same function. They used the available resources and students from both classes accessed Google Search to look for references and other samples to develop their writing tasks.

Students from Class 1B utilised the module handouts and PPT slides provided by the lecturers as the main reference source used in the class. They took notes on the handouts by highlighting key words and writing down the meaning of each vocabulary item that they found on the handout.

Figure 5.15 Note on the handout

Figure 5.15 shows a student looking for the meaning of a specific word from a handout, while also using her smartphone to look for the meaning of the word.

In addition, the tools for vocabulary searching that students used were also more varied. Regardless of which class the students were in, they used the tools as they were connected to the Internet. The meetings for both classes took place in a multimedia laboratory and the Wi-Fi connection was available in every building within the campus area. Students could access the Internet from any of their devices and restrictions only applied to the PC access for students of Class 1B.

However, the most important finding was that students were dependent on vocabulary searching tools in every task cycle. Lacking English vocabulary was the main issue in the writing tasks cycle. However, during the task cycle, students did not really pay attention to grammar. They were more focused on how to get the correct words to compose their writing in the second task cycle. The results from focus group discussions provided evidence that the tools, which students used for their task-based learning for writing skills, were vocabulary-seeking devices. Photographs collected from the classroom observations recorded that students used online and offline dictionaries. Students tended to use dictionary applications on both the PC network and mobile phones. For those who were not entitled to use PC networks, mobile phones became an alternative. In the subsections that follow, I present details and evidence

recorded from the focus group discussions. Firstly, the tools used will be presented followed by the reasons and how the students used the tools.

As students from the Year 1 group were differentiated by the use of PC-mediated (Class 1A) and non-PC-mediated (Class 1B) learning, Class 1B was expected to use printed bilingual dictionaries in every part of the task cycle. Meanwhile, Class 1A was free to utilise any tools available on the PC networks. However, the quantitative data recorded a contrasting finding. 29% of students of the PC-mediated, and 19% of students of the non-PC-mediated class, used a printed dictionary (Figure 5.16). Moreover, online applications on students' smartphones scored the highest in both classes. However, Google Translate (Tool 1) was the tool that the majority of the respondents in the FGD sessions mentioned. 14% of Class 1A students and 23% of students from Class 1B reported Google Translate as their main tool for writing task completion. These findings are contradictory. From observation in Class 1A, it was evident that students utilised both smartphones (eight students) and PCs (ten students) that were connected to the Internet access as recorded in Field Note 2.

Figure 5.16 Google Translate on a smartphone

Figure 5.16 shows a student using Google Translate on her smartphone for long sentences of up to a paragraph. Interestingly, a similar fact was shown by students from Class 1B (see Figure 5.17).

Figure 5.17 Google Translate and YouTube

In Figure 5.17 two students from Class 1 B can be seen accessing the Internet on the PCs that were not supposed to be activated. It was not surprising that they were using the PC in 1B as they were sitting in front of it. The department set this condition because they had no other classroom suitable for writing activities. The typical classrooms only had a folded student arm-desk seat, and this was not appropriate for writing activities. Therefore, writing classes typically took place in multimedia laboratories, which provided a wider surface for writing activities. These students were expected to be working only on their paper and utilising printed dictionaries to complete their writing tasks. However, in the actual learning context, students could not be restricted from translating longer sentence(s) using Google Translate and accessing YouTube videos, a fact frequently observed during the classroom sessions.

Regina from Class 1A, the Edmodo-based class, indicated that she used Google Translate:

> I also use Google Translate frequently. I can say that I am not a diligent student. Using Google Translate is easier that using the conventional printed dictionary, it takes time to open pages in a printed dictionary. It is better to use Google Translate.
>
> (Regina, FGD 1, Class 1A)

Form this extract it is clear that the student preferred Google Translate for its ease of application compared to a printed dictionary. During the time concerned, Regina opted for using the Google Translate and the other students likewise used Google Translate to develop their sentences.

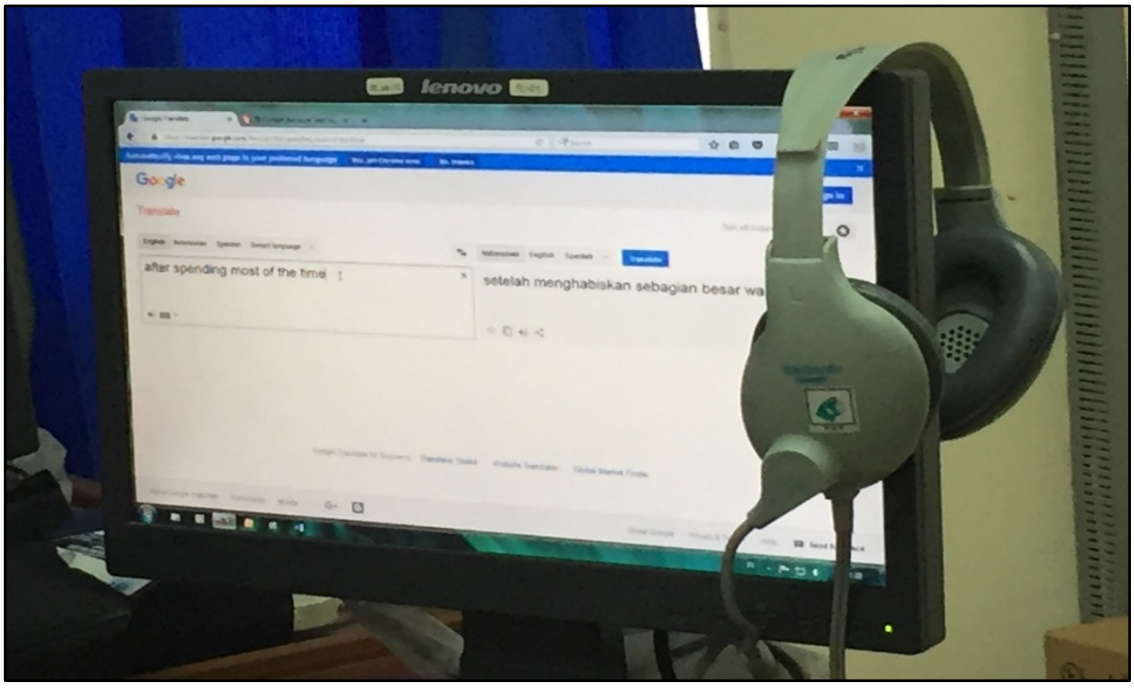

Figure 5.18 Google Translate sample

Figure 5.18 shows the typical translation trick that the students used to complete their writing. They used Google Translate to understand the meaning of English expressions and to construct their sentences. In this screenshot, the student tried to understand “after spending most of the time”.

An interesting finding was noted from a student in a non-PC-mediated class. Neliza also stated that she used Google Translate in her learning process: “I have used it (Google Translate), but I think the grammar is not correct as what I get from my teacher or my lecturer” (Neliza, FGD 2, 30 November 2016). As Neliza mentioned above, she used Google Translate on her smartphone even though she was not supposed to use any technology-aided tools for the writing task completion. In fact, she used Google Translate, which was on her own smartphone as PC usage was banned.

The NVivo word frequency count from Class 1B supported the fact that Google Translate was the most preferred tool to help students from Classes 1A and 1B complete their writing tasks. As shown in Figure 5.18, Google Translate was used to complete their writing by direct translation from English to Indonesian and Indonesian to English. From the text query in NVivo, it was recorded that Lulu, Olga, Shinta, and Regina from 1A used Google Translate. In contrast, Tatiana, Nafiza, Matlal, Yuli, Lina, Afrisa, and Desi from the non-PC-mediated class also used Google Translate.

However, Devina from Class 1B mentioned that she preferred a conventional printed dictionary to Google Translate:

> I think each of us have different tools when we want to complete our paragraph. Myself, I like to use a printed dictionary more than Google Translate because I know that if we use Google Translate, it is not creative. Maybe, if we write one word, it comes up with the correct result, but if you write a long sentence, it will be a different meaning.
>
> (Devina, FGD 2, Class 1B)

Devina used Google Translate for word searching. However, she preferred to use a printed dictionary (Tool 2) to help with her vocabulary searching. This agrees with the previous findings that as a general strategy, students wrote their writing tasks in the Indonesian language and then built-up the English version by translating each word into English. This was also recorded as a strategy. Veronica supported the use of a printed dictionary by saying:

> Yes, because honestly, I don't use Google Translate too much. It is not always correct. For example, if you want to translate something that is in a longer sentence, you will get confused by the result. It was because there is different meaning. So, I prefer to use printed dictionary for my support, the supporting tools in writing.
>
> (Veronica, FGD 2, Class 1B)

Veronica had similar opinions as Devina. Both students from 1B preferred to use a printed dictionary. Veronica reported that she got confused seeing the results she obtained from using the online dictionary.

As Devina emphasised, students from the Class 1B could not resist using technology. While they were limited to the use of computer facilities during the in-class interaction, they used the services on the mobile phones and Internet data and Wi-Fi connection available on the network. From another class in the Year 1 group, a similar response was noted: "Technology is very useful for me because when learning, for example when writing, if I do not know about new vocabulary, I can use online translation in my mobile phone and I think technology is very useful" (Desi, FGD 5, Class 1B).

As a student from Class 1B, Desi was not expected to use only printed dictionaries for her learning. However, she mentioned that she used her mobile phone in assisting her to complete her written task. As she mentioned during the focus group discussion, Desi admitted that the use of technology was very beneficial for her.

Similarly, Matlal from 1B stated: "I use a dictionary book. And if I Google Translate, Google Apps in my phone" (Matlal, FGD 5, Class 1B). Even though, in the beginning he said that he used a printed dictionary, Matlal then admitted to the use of an

application on his mobile phone during the class sessions where he was not allowed to use any technological assistance, except printed dictionaries. As evidence was drawn from these two students of the non-technology-based class and none of the group disagreed with their statements, the conclusion was drawn that it is impossible to ban students from using technology in their learning.

Students from class 1A, who were exposed to the use of technology, expressed the view that technology-based learning was very helpful for them. Nafiza from the non-PC-based class used the Google Translate as her vocabulary-searching tool:

> I think the technology is very useful because we live in the modern era and we can use the technology with laptop, modem, projector and when we learn with technology we can find what we don't know about the English like me, I also use the Google Translate when I don't know about the vocab and then I use the technology and I know after that and the technology is very important and I see and everyone know about technology and can use because I see a child, like senior high school, elementary school they are can use the technology.
>
> (Nafiza, FGD 2, Class 1B)

In contrast, students from the PC-mediated class responded differently. For them, installed dictionary programs or "software for English dictionary" were preferred. For example, Shintia (FGD 1, Class 1A), mentioned that the dictionary tools *Ginger* and *Kamusku* helped her to complete her writing tasks.

Observation notes and photographs supported the finding from the FGDS that students were dependent on the use of technology for vocabulary searching. This dependence on the use of technology was evidenced by the way students in Class 1B attempted to use digital tools (Tool 3) on their mobile phones when access to PC networks was restricted. It was clearly observable that students did not use two versions of bilingual dictionaries. Most students preferred the use of the digital version of dictionaries and related applications on their mobile phones. This finding was also recorded in the focus group discussions.

The nature of the learning with the Year 1 group had mainly switched to the use of mobile phones as the primary resource for the vocabulary-aided tools in their writing task completion. The next favourite tool identified was a bilingual dictionary for Indonesian -English dictionary application called *Kamusku* (Tool 4). Another tool that the students used was a web-based dictionary called *Sederet.com* (Tool 5) which was accessible on both PCs and mobile phones. Even though they used *Kamusku* and *Sederet*.com on different platforms, students used both in the same ways. The first way

involved typing words or phrases and copying them into their writing; the second was to type the whole paragraph in English. Students confirmed that they would cross-check the results they obtained from doing this direct translation and copy-paste them into their writings. These copying and pasting strategies were recorded in the field notes (see 5.4 Strategy for Writing Task Completion).

Even though Class 1A had full access to the PCs, they also accessed the tools on their mobile phones and never mentioned that they used printed dictionaries. Surprisingly, only a minority of respondents from 1B chose to use the dictionary even though they were expected to use only printed dictionaries for vocabulary searching. Halimah from Class 1A said in this respect that, “It is a modern time, if we bring printed dictionaries, they are very thick. It is not possible to carry it everywhere. It is better to use mobile phone[s] that have supporting applications” (Halimah, FGD 1, Class 1A). Matlal from Class 1B also reported similarly (see page 187). Both students, from different classes, reported a preference for mobile phone utilisation. The text search query on NVivo recorded that students from Class 1B mentioned it four times while it was only mentioned on one occasion by the students from Class 1A. For example, Desi mentioned that, “Technology is very useful because when learning examples when writing, if I do not know about new vocabulary, I can use online translation in my mobile phone and I think technology is very useful” (Desi, FGD 5, Class 1B). Desi’s statement indicated that a mobile phone was helpful for students to access vocabulary to construct their writing tasks. Thus, it is obvious that the non-PC-mediated class depended more on smartphone dictionary applications.

Beside Google Translate and YouTube, students also utilised *Ginger* (Tool 5), a dictionary software to help them translate key words during the tasks.

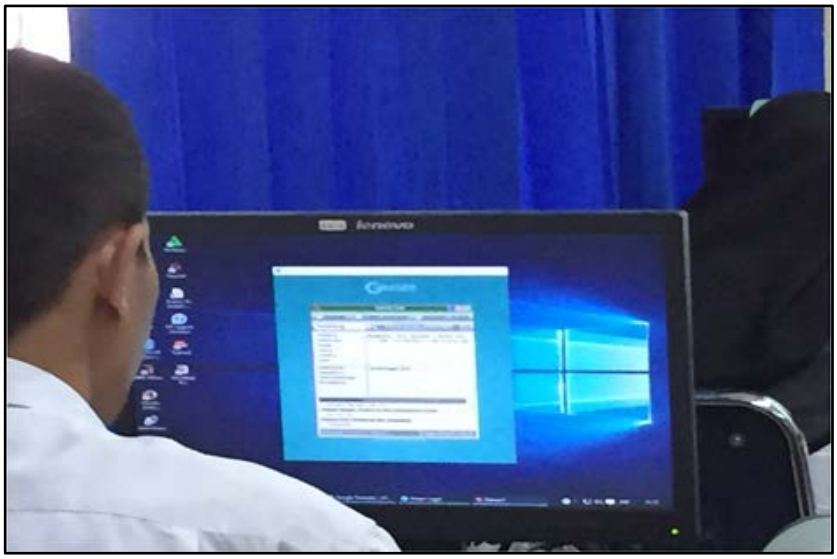

Figure 5.19 Ginger

Figure 5.19 shows a student using *Ginger* to help him in his vocabulary searching by typing the intended word on the space available on the screen. As recorded in the field notes, this student typed in a sentence in Indonesian and received the result in English, which he then processed. It was noted that he used the result in his writing by copying and pasting the results. On other occasions, however, he also made some changes to sentences after translating them on *Ginger*.

Surprisingly, more effort to use the technology was observed in Class 1B compared to Class 1A. The greater tendency for using more technology was noted in the field notes observations. It was observable that students in this class were more active in using their smartphones and more tools for vocabulary searching compared to those in Class 1A. The 1B students used Goole Translate, Ginger, and Sederet.com for vocabulary searching tools. In line with the reasons for these students mentioned in the focus group discussion sessions that they did not like to bring two volumes of heavy dictionaries to school; the need for a digital dictionary was more intense within this group. As they were limited in the use of PCs, an effort to find a greater variety of tools that were accessible on their mobile phones was crucial. As per the results, they used their smart phones and PCs while the lecturers were busy assisting and providing feedback to their classmates. Thus far, the thesis has reported and discussed the tools that Year 1 students used to complete their writing tasks.

However, the tools were not only limited to those used for vocabulary searching. As summarised in Figure 5.10, two other main tools were used: reference-searching tools and the learning platform. Google Search was the main research tool that students used on their PCs and mobile phones. Besides, students from both classes utilised the

materials provided by the lecturers or used the Writing 1 module manual for their main reference. The third main tool that emerged from the data was the use of Edmodo (Class 1A) and portfolios (Class 1B) as a learning platform.

Lulu, from 1A, provided an explanation of why she preferred to complete her writing tasks aided by technology through the use of Edmodo as follows:

> Yes, because when I write some paragraphs, if we make mistakes, Edmodo will help [identifying the grammatical] problems. For example, just like what happened just now, the English rule requires capital letters, when we wrote in small letters, we were given clue that [the highlighted section] was wrong.
>
> (Lulu, FGD 1, Class 1A).

Lulu described the situation when she made mistakes with punctuation, as default Microsoft Word provided clues for the use of capital letters. However, she confused it with Edmodo functions. Lulu found that this punctuation check was one of the benefits she got from using technology in her learning. Another opinion for a technology-aided learning preference was stated by Olga:

> We can minimize the rubbish like the paper, and we just use the computer or laptop and type there. We can conclude all of the paragraph or sentence, we can post in Edmodo, we can practice so, if we practice with the paper and pen. Sometimes, we produce the rubbish if we make mistake or false to write down we can just make the rubbish and for everywhere and yes it can be dirty place.
>
> (Olga, FGD 1, Class 1A).

Olga mentioned the issue of technology-based learning being an environmentally-friendly way of learning. Olga referred to the paper that she used in writing classes which was commonly wasted after the semester finished. Frequently, students did not appreciate their learning progress and wasted a significant amount of paper during their learning process.

The single most striking observation to emerge from the data comparison was found in Class 1B. As this class was not expected to use the PC network, however, they played smart by switching the function of PCs to the use of private phones. Therefore, students of this class also utilised technology. In fact, the use of technology became their preference. However, another rather surprising outcome emerged from the focus group discussion in that the majority of the students preferred to study without the help of technology. For example, Neliza (a student of 1B, who used to study without PC-

assisted learning) expressed her preference for non-PC usage in her writing class as follows:

> I don't want to change [the way we learn now] because if we use the technology, [such as] Edmodo, there will be some weaknesses of it. The weakness of it is about the electricity and the connection, like Devina said. Once we got disconnected from the Wi-Fi, it makes it hard to complete our tasks. It is different from the situation when we are working manually by hand writing.
>
> (Neliza, FGD 2, Class 1B)

Neliza stated that she did not want to switch her learning to a computer-based method. As she explained with respect to technical issues such as Wi-Fi disconnection, she might be distracted from the task cycle as a result of having no Internet connectivity. However, after crosschecking with her quantitative data from the questionnaire Items 1 and 2, it was noted that Neliza's response was influenced by her high motivation toward English language learning and her ambition to become a writer. In this respect Neliza was a special case.

It has been shown from this review that students used the tools they needed to complete their writing tasks; these included dictionary-related facilities, such as printed dictionaries, as well as offline, online and web-based dictionaries. In the next section, I present the findings from the classroom observations in order to visualise the findings.

This section, which addressed the third research question, has explained that the majority of the students used Google Translate and dictionary applications on their mobile phones to assist them in finding vocabulary for their writing during every part of the task completion process. This study highlights that the use of different tools in completing the writing tasks is also related to a specific strategy of learning the necessary writing skills. Further discussion of the strategies is explored in the following section in more detail.

5.3.2 Strategies for writing task completion

Thus far, the thesis has reported and discussed the tools that Year 1 students used to complete their writing tasks. Let us move on now to the essence of this chapter, how students used the tools. The strategies that students used in completing their task are structured following the task-based learning framework from Willis (2000; 1996b; 1998). This TBL framework is used because it defines the third task cycle clearly in relation to language output.

In order to address the question regarding the strategies that students used to complete their writing task, I will report the findings from the quantitative and qualitative data relating to specific learning strategies derived from questionnaires, classroom observations and field notes of the classroom observation. No study was found in the research literature which specifically addressed the question of strategies for writing tasks completion in a specific task-based and technology context. In order to discuss this area in more depth, the discussion focusses on the strategies that the students used by relating them to the more general research literature reviewed in section 2.5.6 (The Language Learning Strategies).

Lian (2016) stated that, in principle, people are different in the way they learn. Therefore, Lian suggested using tools to facilitate the differences in learning and agreed on the use of technology in learning. In sequence, the strategies that students used to approach their writing tasks might also differ. According to Oxford (1990), the higher one's language learning motivation, the higher the range of appropriate strategies that are applied in the learning process. However, categorising the strategies into the six categories introduced by Oxford (1990), memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies, seems too general for the specific concerns of this thesis. Therefore, this study suggests the need for specific strategies to explain the technology-mediated TBLT used to develop writing ability in this study. Further studies on learning strategies for writing skills using TBLT and technology are needed.

As limited research literature on writing strategies has been identified, it was expected that insights addressing the area would emerge and potentially contribute to this gap. These differences will be discussed further by focussing on each stage of the task cycle students performed without differentiating based on classes and task types. No such differentiation was required as both classes did the same tasks and followed the same task cycle.

The results of the analysis have led to an adapted framework for a writing skills module which implements technology-mediated TBL; this is outlined in three sections: pre-task (5.3.2.1), task (5.3.2.2), and language focus (5.3.2.3) focussing on the strategies that the Year 1 students utilised to complete their writing tasks.

5.3.2.1 Pre-Task

The first strategy identified during the pre-task cycle was a metacognitive strategy. Earlier in the pre-task phase, students were recorded focusing their learning by paying attention to the lecturer's explanations and samples. Paying attention is grouped into the first division of the metacognitive strategies (centring your learning). Moreover, the nature of the TBL framework enabled students to plan their writing tasks. This planning stage, at the end of the pre-task cycle, is within the second group of metacognitive strategies. Students arranged and planned their learning by organising ideas into writing tasks and planning for them.

From this study, it can be concluded that the use of the vocabulary-searching tools highlights the types of strategies implemented by the students. By using the tools, it was evident that the students used cognitive strategies in order to analyse, translate and transfer the required vocabulary and use the relevant tools (Oxford, 1990) and the artefact-mediated strategies (Lei, 2008). The second strategy identified in the pre-task cycle was the compensation strategy for utilising dictionaries to search for unknown words. More about this strategy is explained in the main task section.

5.3.2.2 Task

The task cycle exposed students to active language usage. In general, the way students performed their writing tasks was recorded in Item 11. Understanding how students completed their writing tasks was recorded by this item. As students worked on different types of writing tasks (paragraph construction and narrative construction for the first-year students), responses to Item 11 were expected to provide a general response relating to the way the students dealt with their writing tasks. Students had to respond to five options related to the way they usually completed their writing tasks.

Option 1 referred to the use of online dictionaries, such as Google Translate, which was utilised by typing as many words as possible to complete the writing task instantly. Option 2 referred to writing down the points relating to the main ideas to develop their writing. Option 3 related to how the writing task was started by writing down any thoughts as sentences, turning them into paragraphs and going through a process involving several revisions. Option 4 described the way of getting the tasks done by postponing writing until the due date was approaching, then requesting samples from other peers to complete their own writing task. The last involved looking for

information from English websites and then using the information to build up the writing.

Table 5.11 Item 11 (For completing my writing tasks I used to)

	Classes by Year 1A	1B	Total
1. Take advantages of Google Translate by typing as many words as possible to complete the task quickly	2 9%	3 12%	5 10%
2. Start by writing down points to be explored in the writing	7 32%	9 35%	16 33%
3. Start writing and do editing by reading and revising the writing	10 45%	14 54%	24 50%
4. Wait until the due date is approaching then seek for classmates' tasks to get inspiration from	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%
5. Look for information from English websites and quote them in my own writing	3 14%	0 0%	3 6%
Total	22	26	48

As indicated by Table 5.11, the most striking result to emerge from the data was that there were no differences between Classes 1A and 1B. What is striking about the counts are options 3 and 4. The majority of the students from both classes (99%) reported that they started writing and edited their writing by reading and revising it. Following that, 33% of students chose Option 3. None of the students from either class chose Option 4.

Considering the situation observed in the pilot study where students tended to spend more time Googling for samples of writing on the Internet, Option 4 was expected to obtain more responses. Students responded that they did not wait until the due date was approaching before starting to use classmates' tasks as their source of inspiration to start writing their own. This response was suspected not to be in line with what the students really did as this was not observed during classroom practice. Some students relied on looking at the samples from their classmates who had posted their tasks to the Edmodo assignment or personally asked them to show them their tasks, so that they could have a look before starting to write their own. However, only 2% of students responded to this option.

In contrast, the highest response, Option 3 (start writing and do editing by reading and revising the writing) was the most likely way to finish the writing tasks chosen by fifty-two students (42%). This option might have been chosen considering the instructions provided by lecturers. The students, who were in the non-PC class, were not allowed to post their writing to Edmodo or submit the writing book journal to the lecturers without going through peer-feedback and revising their writing. In this situation, students might have been aware of their timeline, and that they might not have be able to obtain their score without starting to write their draft as soon as possible. Next, the second highest response was for Option 2. It was chosen by thirty-nine students (31%), indicating that they used to jot down ideas before starting to write their scripts. For the low response rates, eighteen students (14%) favoured Point 1 (typing as many words as possible in Google Translate to complete the writing quickly) and Point 5 (copy-pasting from websites) was the option selected by fourteen students (11.2%). The threat to validity of their answers has been discussed in Chapter 3 (Methodology).

In summary, it has been shown from these quantitative findings that students from PC-based and non-PC-based classes used similar tools to help them complete their writing tasks. Google Translate was the most frequent tool utilised in every task cycle. To conclude this part, students of different classes and year groups had different preferences for their learning tools regardless of whether they were in a PC or non-PC-based group. The findings have identified that students had a preference for the use of the Internet technology in performing their writing tasks in both PC- and non-PC-based classes. However, greater triangulation of data is required to draw a stronger conclusion.

The following section reports and discusses the findings from the qualitative instruments. The majority of the students started to draft their writing in the Indonesian language and translated it into English. This strategy was a cognitive one. Analysing and reasoning happened during this translating and transferring process. Furthermore, students had their own way of completing their writing.

Regina, from Class 1A, said, “I usually search for references first. When I have the references, I can say that I copy-paste but not all. If I think that is relevant, I use it but I write it on my own way” (Regina, FGD 1, Class 1A). Regina said that the first step she took was to look for references. Even though her writing task related to narrative writing, Regina described that she first researched it. The next step was to copy-paste the references into her own writing. This finding contradicted the questionnaire results,

as the result from Item 10 suggested that students did not like to use copy-paste techniques.

Students had different strategies for completing their writing tasks; it was also recorded that a student used a printed dictionary and wrote the result down into her portfolio book.

Figure 5.20 Write on the portfolio-writing book

Figure 5.20 shows a student using direct writing without an outline or draft. The student developed her writing task directly in her portfolio book and utilised a printed dictionary to help her in the process.

In comparison, Neliza, stated that she used to write an outline for her writing tasks:

> For the first time that I try to complete my writing task is the first [thing] that I will do is [to] make my mind. I will make outline from the story that I want to explain, so if I finish with picturing it in my mind or my outline, I can explain what I want to explain. So, there is a tip from my debate coach this time that if you write an academic essay or something like that, you must make the outline first. You must make the outline of things you know about. Then explain the topic, write the topic sentences and something like that and I think the first step that will help me to finish my writing is make the outline.
>
> (Neliza, FGD 2, Class 1B)

Neliza contradicted her peers in this respect. Outlining her points before writing was considered an important stage for her; from this she would develop her ideas in order to complete her writing.

It was also noted that direct paragraph development in English also took place. Tatiana from 1B mentioned:

> I just pictured it in my mind and then with my imagination I can explain, and I can get a lot of words and then I write on a draft of a piece of paper in the beginning, after that I write in the book.
>
> (Tatiana, FGD 2, Class 1B)

Tatiana explained that she used to write a draft before transferring it to her writing portfolio. Veronica, from the non-PC class (1B), described her way of completing her writing task, the narrative writing, as follows:

> [I] write it down and often I just keep [the idea] in my mind [without making any outline] but if I forget it I always write it down on a paper, after that I will rewrite [the draft after completing it] on another paper to complete my paragraph. I will write the theme first, after that the topic, [and] the main idea. For example, my experience when I was in senior high school. There is a part of it where I will write. [For example] the main idea is Veronica's experience when she was in her senior high school with her old friend. After that I will write down some points, such as what I was doing there, of course, how the accident happened and the last point is the conclusion from my paragraph what the ending of the story of the ending of paragraph is. I will write it in the end of the paragraph.
>
> (Veronica, FGD 2, Class 1B)

Veronica explained that as a former freestyle writer, she relied on her abstract mind and started writing her ideas down into sentences. Also, she wrote things down on a piece of paper as an outline. She developed her narrative paragraph by following the standard writing procedure, from thinking of the general idea of the theme of her writing to specific details to support her story. From the same group, a different strategy was used by Devina, as she explained:

> For me, I make the point. I mean, if I already know about the topic and I have already read about the text, I will underline the most important thing and I make this my point in the assignment. And I choose what is the opening, what is the body, the conclusion, and after I know that I will underline it. I will put the sentence in the right place and after that I will read it again.
>
> (Devina, FGD 2, Class 1B)

Devina used to write down her points in an outline before she started writing paragraphs. She planned each part of her writing task. Once she finished, she read it again and revised it. These strategies were metacognitive and involved centring the learning, arranging and planning, and evaluating the writing task through various ways of writing.

A contrast was expressed by Tatiana from Class 1B. She explained her way of completing the task in terms of: "I just use my imagination and then with my

imagination I can explain, and I can get a lot of words and then I write a draft in the beginning, after that I can write in the book" (Tatiana, FGD 2, 30 November 2016). In this, she applied a memory strategy by using imagery in her mind.

Tatiana mentioned that she worked in a similar way to Devina. In the beginning, she used an outline and did not need to seek for information from the Internet before starting the writing task. Tatiana, however, also used to draft her writing then transferred it to her portfolio-writing book to continue completing her writing. This way, Tatiana might need more time to complete her tasks, as she needed another stage before she could join the next task cycle. This finding was confirmed by the observation results. It was recorded in the field notes that the majority of the students wrote on a piece of paper and transferred the content to their portfolio books or to the Edmodo submission platform.

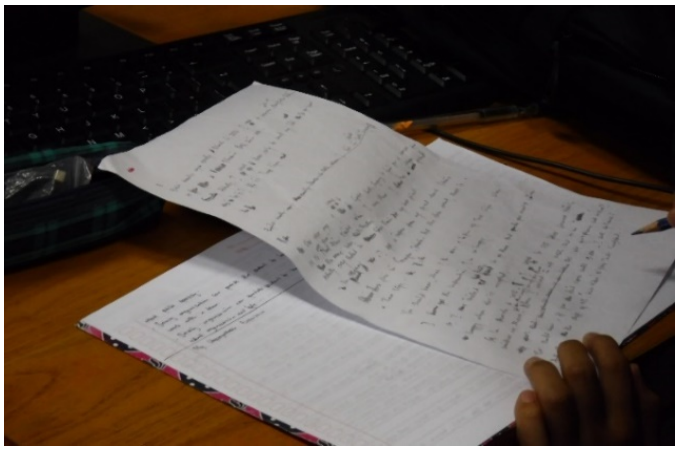

Figure 5.21 A way to complete the task

As seen in Figure 5.21, a student wrote her first draft on a piece of paper before transferring it to her portfolio book. This strategy was a cognitive strategy that enabled students to practice before writing down their tasks on the actual task platform (either Edmodo or the portfolio). Also, it was a memory strategy. In this case, the student was able to review the writing effectively before transferring the draft to the actual writing task.

The next strategy, identified from the way all students performed the writing task cycle, can be called a compensation strategy. It was identified by the use of different tools which helped students to overcome their limitations in expressing themselves in writing. The majority of the students used varieties of tools to complete their writing tasks. They prepared two versions of printed dictionaries, installed dictionary applications on their smartphones and on the PC networks. Not only that, all

students searched for effective online dictionaries and frequently used them in their learning.

As was also found in the pilot study (see Section 3.11), the main study also confirmed the finding that copy-paste was one of the digital strategies that was applied. Based on the analysis of the photographs from all classroom observation sessions, students typed words from their L1 (Indonesian language) using the tools that they chose and copy-pasted them into their writing. This finding was confirmed by the response to questionnaire Item 10 and all FGD sessions. As explained in Chapter 3 (Methodology), the questionnaire was based on the observation of the learning process in the classes during the pilot and main studies. As copy-paste activity was observable during the observation at the pilot study stage, this point was investigated specifically in Item 10 in order to cross-check whether copy-paste was the method the students employed; in this case it is referred to as one of the strategies that the students used in doing their writing task.

Arising from observation during the pilot study, copy-paste was the dominant strategy used by students to complete their writing tasks. Students of Year 1 utilised Google Translate for longer sentences and copied the results to their writing tasks.

Moving on now to the questionnaire results, Item 10 of the questionnaire was designed to investigate this strategy. It elicited the students' self-reported responses on a Likert scale of 1 to 7, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Students were asked to respond to the statement "I used to copy-paste all English materials from online sources I found in the Internet." As discussed in the validity section in the Methodology chapter, it was expected that a small number of students might not respond accordingly. However, this finding had been anticipated.

Table 5.12 Copy-Paste

	1A		1B	
Strongly Disagree	1	5%	3	12%
Disagree	2	9%	6	23%
Somewhat Disagree	3	14%	4	15%
Undecided	7	32%	3	12%
Somewhat Agree	5	23%	3	12%
Agree	3	14%	5	19%
Strongly Agree	1	5%	2	8%
Total	22	100%	26	100.00%

Table 5.12 records students' responses to copy-paste as a strategy for writing task completion. The students from the non-PC-based class (1B) chose "disagree" as their

highest choice (23%). Meanwhile, 32% of students from the PC-based class (1A) chose the “undecided” option. As copy-paste was identical with the PC-mediated activities, students of Class 1A who were entitled to PC usage, opted for undecided (32%). Interestingly, there were similar ratios of those who agreed and disagreed (12%) within the non-PC-mediated class. However, 23% of the students of this class disagreed with copy-paste as a strategy for completing the writing task. Surprisingly, 23% of the respondents from the PC-mediated class agreed to copy-pasting. Copy- paste in this case meant copying the words they obtained from the online or offline dictionaries and Google Translate into their own writing. Not only did students copy by words and phrases, some of them were also recorded as copying the whole paragraph from their Indonesian draft into Google Translate. Then, they pasted the translation results of the whole sentences or paragraphs into their writing tasks.

An analysis of this finding is that copy-paste is unavoidable as students used a digital dictionary. For those whose learning was facilitated by a PC, copying the results they received through online, offline or web-based dictionaries was the most accessible way to complete their writing task in a timely manner. However, students from the non-PC-mediated class did not have access to the copy-paste alternative, which explained the findings in this matter. Referring to the language learning strategies identified by Oxford (1990), copy-paste is a compensation strategy. This explains why students tried to overcome their limitations in writing by seeking help from the digital dictionaries that were accessible from the PCs and mobile phones and copied the results to their writing tasks.

This copy-paste process might also be referred to as a cognitive strategy. To complete the copy-paste, they needed to analyse the resources they obtained from the Internet. In the effort to copy-paste, students tried to analyse the words in both languages. Translating the unfamiliar words from English and Indonesian required analysing and reasoning. In addition, they also conducted the transfer process from their first draft to their portfolio (Class 1B). For others in Class 1A, four students were recorded writing on a piece of paper before they typed their writing onto the Edmodo platform. This can be understood in terms of the subdivision of cognitive strategies identified by Oxford (1990).

However, a contrasting finding was recorded from Class 1B. Having access to Google Translate on her smartphone did not cause Tatiana to rely on it. She applied a

metacognitive strategy in her effort to complete her writing. For her vocabulary-searching tool, Tatiana reported different reasons for using a printed dictionary:

> I think similarly to Devina. If I don't know the words, I can look for it in the printed dictionary because if I search in printed dictionary, it makes me search for the target word carefully. I get to know the word and I will remember it because I don't want to search and check for it again. If I use Google Translate or something like online dictionary and forget it, I will type it again. It is simple! I don't want to. If I don't know, I type, something like that! When I look for the vocabulary on the printed dictionary I tend to remember the words but if I use online or digital version I tend to forget because [it] is too easy to type [and easy to forget]
>
> (Tatiana, FGD2, Class 1B)

Using Google Translate was considered by Tatiana to be a simple process. However, she did not prefer it. Tatiana seemed to plan her learning. In contrast to other students, she worked against the majority. She let her brain memorise the vocabulary by putting more effort into searching for the vocabulary from the printed dictionary. She reported that obtaining the English vocabulary via Google Translate did not help her to acquire the vocabulary, as she was likely to forgot it easily afterwards.

During the second phase of the task cycle, students performed peer reviews. This task also required similar strategies. Students analysed expressions used by their peers in their writing. Moreover, students applied a compensation strategy by switching to their mother tongue while explaining their feedback. This happened in Class 1B as students provided feedback on the portfolio and exchanged the portfolio manually. This strategy was not recorded from Class 1A. This was because the communication that took place during peer feedback occurred via written comments on the Edmodo wall.

Cooperating with classmates was another strategy observed during the peer feedback phase. Students applied social strategies (Oxford, 1990) or role-mediated strategies as suggested by Lei (2008) to cooperate with their peers and empathise. The students became aware of their peers' thoughts and feelings while providing and receiving feedback. It was observed that perceived competence significantly predicted posting behaviour (including the number of posts and the length of posts). It was recorded in FGD session that students who felt confident about their capabilities to complete the learning tasks were much more likely to post more and longer messages. Students who were not confident of their capabilities were much less likely to engage in learning activities and more likely to exhibit minimum effort in online discussions. It was observed from the evaluation on the Edmodo class that students who provided feedback

and responded to feedback were identified as those who had higher scores and higher levels of motivation.

For the re-writing stage, another metacognitive strategy was also identified. Students evaluated their writing based on the feedback provided by their peers. In engaging in peer feedback, students also performed self-monitoring and self-evaluation. While checking on their peers' writing, they also reflected on their own writing. However, further research needs to be done in order to clarify this probability.

5.3.2.3 Language Focus

During the practice phase, the students' roles were divided into audience and leader (the volunteering or the chosen one). As language focus was divided into analysis and learning, several strategies were applied. Firstly, metacognitive strategies were applied during the analysing phase. While the audience were listening to their peers analysing a piece of writing in front of the class, the audience paid attention (metacognitive strategy). Meanwhile, the volunteering or chosen student, who performed the class peer-review, applied cognitive, affective, and social strategies. These students, who performed the class analysis, analysed and expressed reasons for the feedback that was being mentioned in front of the class. Then an affective strategy was detected from the students' efforts to volunteer to stand before the class. Next, a social strategy was evident in the cooperation that was observed among the student peers. In order to stand up for the lead peer reviewer, students needed to ask permission to discuss their peer's writing in front of the class. The rest of the class also engaged in a social strategy by asking questions, clarifications and corrections, as was confirmed via observation.

During the practice phase, two strategies were evident: metacognitive (paying attention to the lecturer) and cognitive strategies. The cognitive strategies were in the form of recognising and using formulas and patterns as highlighted and corrected by the lecturers. In addition, students also practiced new sentences under the guidance of the lecturers. Similar to the pre-task and practice phase in the language focus cycle, the social strategy of asking questions, clarifications and corrections was also observable.

This section has presented the findings obtained from the mixed data. It has listed the tools and the strategies, which students implemented to complete the task series for their narrative writing. The findings identify the three main tools, which the students used: 1) the vocabulary-searching, 2) reference-searching tools, and 3) the platforms for

learning. Moreover, the findings have also highlighted six common strategies (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social) which were evident at different points throughout the three task cycles.

The next section will discuss the findings of both research questions and elaborate them into the sequence of tasks stages where the answer to each research question was extracted. A general conclusion of the findings will be discussed in relation to the literature.

5.4 Discussion

5.4.1 The affective factors in learning writing skills

This section relates the findings and research literature to generate a conclusion for the second research question. Limited research literature was found on the cross-section between motivation for language learning, TBL approaches in teaching writing skills, and technology-mediated learning. Therefore, a comparison between the results from each finding is evaluated against each other. Given this limitation, this current research would benefit from further research.

As explained in the findings section, it is clear that the use of technology and the TBL approach affected the students' motivation. Based on the maximum values, I conclude the findings as follows:

1. Sixty-two students (49.2%) reported choosing Point 3 representing their reasons for being motivated because they thought that the use of technology contributed to making their English learning more interesting (M = 3.21, df = 1.102).
2. Sixty-five students (52%) reported being demotivated for unknown reasons (M = 4.21, df = 1.142).
3. Forty-nine students (39.2%) recorded that the changes to their writing skills were due to their self-determination for improving their skill (M = 2.59, df = 1.541).

However, these findings are complemented by other findings from the qualitative data. Furthermore, nine factors were identified from the FGD sessions with the students:

1) novelty
2) technological issues
3) economic reasoning

4) environmental issues
5) time efficiency
6) psychological factors
7) human factors
8) holistic learning
9) other issues

Prior studies that have noted the importance of the differences between language learning motivation and classroom learning motivation (Gardner, 1985; 2007a). However, very little was found in the literature on the differences in these two types of motivation. A possible explanation for this might be that the majority of research observed motivation based on intrinsic and extrinsic or integrative and instrumental motivation.

Before discussing further, the specific motivational issues discovered from this study, it is important to observe a case from this study to define a clear difference between language learning motivation and classroom learning motivation. These two types of motivation constructs were developed by Gardner (1985) considering that second and foreign language acquisition differ. Since language acquisition and language learning are not the same, it is best to use the concept of motivational construct introduced by Gardner. The following part discusses these motivational constructs relating to the findings.

5.4.1.1 Two types of motivation construct

This motivation construct by Gardner (1985; 2007a) is discussed here in order to understand the motivating factors in the study. The contradiction between the results from the self-reported responses arising from the students' questionnaire, FGD, and classroom observation (see Appendix 5) can be understood through the theory of motivation from Gardner (1985, 2007). The perception of motivation reported in the online questionnaire and FGDs was categorised as language learning motivation. Meanwhile, the observed motivation was the classroom learning motivation. Since the classroom learning motivation was influenced by the cultural and educational context (Gardner, 1985; 2007), identifying differences in these two types of the motivational construct was possible. Therefore, the fact that students showed a different attitude in their classroom interaction can be justified.

As far as this study is concerned, the results from Chapter 4 indicated that the students had a very high level of motivation. However, it might not be reflected in their classroom attitude toward the learning process. Therefore, Matlal's attitude in the classroom should not be understood as being demotivated. As he reported in Item 1 of the student questionnaire relating to motivation for learning English, Matlal had been interested in any English related activities since he was young. However, he was recorded as being asleep in the class because he had completed his writing tasks while his classmates were still working on their draft. In terms of his performance Matlal was considerably ahead of his classmates. This example from Matlal's case suggested that there were differences between language learning motivation and classroom learning motivation (Gardner, 1985, 2007a).

This study set out with the aim of assessing the factors that affected students' motivation in writing classes at a vocational-based institute. The current study found that technology-mediated task-based learning in writing classes affected students' motivation to complete their writing tasks both ways. 'Why one thinks and behaves as one does' was referred to as motivation by Dörnyei (2001a). By this definition, active learning and enthusiasm were expected from high-motivated students during their classroom activities. Based on this definition, I observed student' classroom behaviour and compared it with their responses to the students' questionnaire and FGDs. This current study found a contradiction between self-reported motivation levels and observed motivational attitude in the students.

Students who self-reported having high motivation were observed being lazy in the class and sleeping while other students were working on their writing tasks. Similarly, some students were not keen on talking to their lecturer to obtain feedback for their writing. In this case, highly motivated students did not reflect their motivation in their learning. In terms of the observation of general trends in the classes, a similar pattern was identified. Students who reported having lower motivation levels participated enthusiastically in their task-based learning. This in return might have affected their motivation in completing the writing tasks. The students could be demotivated and vice versa. Positive and negative reactions were recorded. These findings may help us to understand that motivational issues are unique and are not generalisable. The results of this study did not show any significant correlation between motivation and achievement in writing classes. However, the qualitative data indicated differently. Four themes were used (the use of task-based approach, the use of

technology-mediated learning, feedback, and the human factor) to discuss the answer to the RQ2 (What are the factors that affect students' motivation to learn English in a technology-mediated task-based approach?).

Ushioda (2014) listed four causes of demotivation in L2 learning. They are 1) disappointing test performance, 2) boring and repetitive tasks, 3) difficulty understanding a text, and 4) communicative failure and frustration. However, Ushioda recognised that there are individual differences shaping students' responses and these in turn affect poor test performance. Some might get disheartened and lose motivation. In contrast, other students might use it as a stimulus to work harder and be more diligent in their learning. In response to this argument from Ushioda (2014), boring and repetitive tasks seems to be more relevant to explain the factors identified in this current study.

Moreover, Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) found learning contents and materials, teachers' competence and teaching styles, inadequate school facilities, lack of intrinsic motivation, and test scores as five demotivating factors among 656 Japanese high school students. This current research confirms only one factor, the lack of intrinsic motivation that this study refers to as instrumental motivation. Only one student in this study from 125 students had a pure integrated or intrinsic motivation to learn English in the institution. Therefore, lack of integrated or intrinsic motivation was confirmed by this study as one of the demotivating factors influencing English writing skills.

According to Busse (2014), four variables: 1) lack of perceived progress, 2) lack of deliberate practice, 3) suboptimal challenge, and 4) suboptimal feedback caused demotivation. The motivation for language learning in writing classes can be improved by making students work on intellectually challenging and linguistically attainable tasks. In this case, this thesis evaluated the types of writing tasks that were assigned to the students in Year 1 as not motivating. This case was observed on some students who were highly motivated. However, they were not observed having a motivating attitude during the classroom sessions (for example, Matlal in Observation 1B.1/2/3). Further exploration of the factors that affected the students' motivation is explored in the following sections.

5.4.1.2 The use of Task-Based Learning approach

This current study supports the finding from previous research conducted by Roni, Inderawati, and Hakim (2017). In their study on Indonesian students using TBLT and

conventional teaching techniques in teaching writing, Roni, Inderawati, and Hakim (2017) found that TBLT approaches could improve students' writing skills regardless of their level of motivation. This current study has observed students' judgement of their writing progress during their study experience learning writing. The students of all year groups confirmed that they found that TBL in writing classes improved their writing ability. In the quantitative findings on questionnaire Item 5, it was recorded that forty students (32%) reported 'strongly agreeing' that the use of technology in learning affected their motivation to learn English. In addition, Item 9 recorded that forty-nine students (39%) reported changes in their writing skills due to students' self-encouragement for completing the task. The three task cycles activated the students' self-awareness that they needed to complete every stage of the task cycle. This study defined this ability in terms of having an attitude for learning. The students were conditioned to follow the required stages of task completion as assigned by the TBL design. Consequently, the students became more motivated to complete their writing tasks. This current research compliments the previous findings conducted in Indonesia (Roni *et al.,* 2017).

Roni et al. (2017) reported the advantage of TBL in improving students' writing ability quantitatively through experimental study. This study has added to the literature based on students' perspective on their own learning. Yusni (FGD 10), for example, reported that learning writing skills through TBL had improved her skills (see p.154-155). Furthermore, Danang (FGD 4) complemented the feedback from his classmates during the main task cycle (p. 155–156). This TBL approach activated the student's willingness to complete his writing task and to utilise the feedback from his classmates to improve his writing. Roni *et al.* (2017) designed his research experimentally. In contrast, this current study evaluated the TBL approach and motivation in writing classes from a natural classroom environment perspective without adding any experimental design. By doing so, this current study has enriched the research on motivation and TBLT in a writing skills context in Indonesian EFL teaching practice by observing a naturalistic setting.

5.4.1.3 The use of technology in the writing classes

The use of technology in the writing classes was the topic most responded to by the students during the FGD sessions, especially on the topic of Edmodo. Similarly, the findings from two students' questionnaire Items (6 and 7) indicated the positive effect

of technology-mediated learning on students' motivation in English writing classes. Before We 2.0 was introduced, Warschauer (1996) indicated that computer-assisted learning increased students' motivation. This current research, however, partially agrees with Warschauer (1996) in this respect. The FGD results indicated positive and negative motivation due to the use of computer and internet connections in their writing classes. The changes in responses were indicated from the result from students' questionnaire Items 6, 13, and 14. In the quantitative findings on questionnaire Item 6 (The use of technology in writing task completion makes English writing task more interesting), it was recorded that fifty-six students (45%) reported 'strongly agreeing' that the use of technology in learning English writing contributed positively to their interest in the learning. This study identified a strong connection between having an interest in doing the writing task and having motivation to do it.

In contrast, Item 13 recorded different findings. When the statement was turned to a negative statement in Item 13 (When I was not allowed to use technology in completing my task, I lost my interest in doing the task), a contrasting finding was recorded. Thirty-seven students (30%) reported their disagreement that the use of non-technology caused them to lose interest in completing writing tasks. This finding implied that when they were conditioned to study without using computer-aided facilities, the students thought that they would still be interested in completing their writing. However, uncertainty was detected when the statement was changed to "the use of non-technology English writing, such as using only pens, pencils, and paper". The responses varied and twenty-seven students (21.6%) indicated their doubts by choosing the "undecided" option. On Item 6, the option "undecided" was not given. The doubt was recorded by choosing "Somewhat Agree" (8%) and "Somewhat Disagree" (2%). When both responses were combined, the responses were not significant compared to those that indicated agreement. These differences in the findings from Items 6 and 13 indicated that the students preferred learning English writing using the internet and computer-aided facilities. From these three questionnaire items, it is concluded that students' self-reported input showed that technology played an important role in the process of learning to write in a foreign language. Having access to technology contributed positively to the students' motivation to complete their writing tasks.

Earlier research recorded that the use of computer technology in writing classes indicated a positive effect on the quality of the writing among thirty-eight English as a Second Language (ESL) students in Spain (Sullivan & Pratt, 1996). However, similar to

the findings from this current study, students' attitudes toward the writing tasks did not change. Both studies from different technological periods found that quantitatively there was an effect on attitudes toward writing with computers. Either using the computer or not, the students still worked on their writing tasks. However, their writing quality improved in computer and internet-mediated learning environments. The differences in the responses to the Items 6, 13, and 14 supported this conclusion. This current study supports the findings from Sullivan and Pratt (1996) in this respect.

5.4.1.4 Feedback

The literature recorded that motivation and performance could be enhanced by feedback by combining it with challenging goals and agreed that engagement affected motivation (Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Becker, 1978; Busse, 2014; Erez, 1977). This current study observed that providing and accepting feedback triggered engagement in the task cycles. As students were conditioned to follow the stages of the task-based cycle, they could not avoid the parts involving giving and receiving feedback from their classmates and the other lecturers. As students reported during the FGD, feedback was considered to be both positive and negative with respect to affecting their motivation. However, the majority of the students expressed their preferences for working on feedback to improve their writing tasks.

The findings section does not record the results relating feedback. However, feedback as a variable that influenced the students' motivation was extracted from the consideration of psychological factors (Sections 5.2.1.6 and 5.2.3). According to Bandura and Cervone (1986), in their study of differential engagement on self-reactive influences on cognitive motivation involving eighty-eight psychology students, indicated that participants became unmotivated when there was no active involvement in the activities. They also became bored and uncertain of their abilities. Moreover, they noted that without the element of challenge, their life became rather dull. Similar to these statements, this study concludes that feedback made the learning of writing skills in this context more interesting. Repeated activities involving drafting and submitting the writing tasks might become boring activities. In contrast, the emphasis on feedback in this task-based cycle created a challenging and motivating environment for the students.

Busse (2014) suggested that feedback affected intrinsic motivation and reminded us of the importance of teacher feedback for improving students' motivation. The

feedback, however, should be a positive. In this current study, 34% of the students (n = 42) reported that they sometimes felt demotivated by the way the lecturer provided feedback. This quantitative finding was supported by the findings from FGDs relating to the way the lecturer gave oral feedback during the second main task (the feedback session). Therefore, this study adds to the findings from Busse (2014) that positive feedback affected the students in this study. In addition, negative feedback caused demotivation. However, as the TBL design encouraged the students to learn English writing skills by performing a series of tasks, the feedback provided should have been delivered positively. According to Busse (2014), informational feedback improves motivation. In conclusion, feedback can affect motivation in language learning both positively and negatively. Therefore, Busse (2014) reminded us that feedback was also an important factor in students' dissatisfaction with writing tasks.

5.4.1.5 Human factors

Three human factors were recorded in the questionnaire as motivating factors. The first human factor found in this present study concerned the lecturers. As recorded from both quantitative data (Item 8) and the FGDs, students felt demotivated and avoided obtaining feedback from one of the lecturers whom they identified as a negative feedback provider. Demotivating factors appeared to be more dominant in this study. 34% of the students reported this element as demotivating. Meanwhile, it was regarded as a motivating factor by 22% of the students. This situation was observed during the classroom observation in Class 1B and the FGD with the students from the same class. Students tended to go to one of the lecturers to obtain feedback as a solution.

The second human factor identified was the influence of their classmates. As noted in section 5.2.3.2, students reported that their classmates caused distractions as a result of their irrelevant activities, such as their use of Google for music clips or movies, as well as making noises. These were reported as demotivating factors. Lastly, family conditions were detected as an influential factor. The case reported by Tari from class 2A (FGD 4) exemplified this. Many students had financial problems and other issues in their family, and these created a context that affected their motivation in studying.

However, the family factor was reported as a motivating factor by 10% of the students; this was in fact higher at 7% than the demotivating findings. The participants from FGD 8 supported these findings. FGD 8 recorded that having siblings who studied English in other universities had contributed to the students' motivation in learning

English in this vocational education institution. In this case, exposure to English outside of classroom interaction might also contribute to higher levels of motivation. This might contribute to the fact that English in Indonesia was considered as a developmental trigger. By being skilful in English, parents and other family members became proud of their children. Therefore, psychologically, it created a positive feeling for the learners that motivated them in continuing in their learning.

The next section of this chapter moves onto describe the findings of both quantitative and qualitative about the way students completed their tasks relating to RQ3.

5.4.2 The way students complete technology-mediated TBL writing tasks

This section discusses the findings following the themes derived from RQ3 (how do students complete technology-mediated TBLT writing tasks?): tools and strategies for writing task completion applied by the students in this study. In line with the general structure of the thesis, a theme-based organisation governs this discussion section. One interesting finding, which emerged from the study, is that an adjustment to Willis' TBLT framework (1996a, 1996b) is needed to accommodate a more suitable TBLT design for the teaching and learning of English writing skills. This proposed framework is presented following the discussion of the tools and strategies for completing writing tasks.

5.4.2.1 Tools for writing task completion

Answering the third question in this study involved investigating the technological aids students used to complete their writing tasks. As mentioned in the literature review (Section 2.6.3), little research was found on this topic relating to tools used by students to complete their writing tasks. In the finding section, five tools were reported: the computer laboratory, stand-alone PCs with overhead projectors, whiteboards, mobile phones, and Web 2.0 applications. While no research has specifically focused on technology-mediated TBLT and writing, other relevant research on the classification of effective technology for foreign language learning by Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, and Freynik, (2014) will be used to analyse the data. Classification of the tools for writing task completion is summarised in Figure 5.10. In Figure 5.10 the tools utilised by the students in their writing tasks completion are clearly identified. The following sections will discuss this in more detail.

5.4.2.1.1 Vocabulary-searching tool

First, vocabulary-searching tools were the dominant tools in every task cycle. Online and offline dictionaries as well as printed dictionaries were used. This classification is similar to "individual study tools" by Golonka *et al.* (2014). The difference only relates to their specific use for teaching writing skills, while the review from Golonka *et al*. is a summary of 350 different studies of various different language skills and teaching approaches. However, this study confirms Golonka's claim that the use of the vocabulary searching tools was efficient for students to understand the concept, the samples and the instruction during the pre-task session. As a comparison between the classes was not used and it was not designed as an experimental study there is no definitive quantitative data relating to students' performance. This study confirms the findings from other studies, however, that online and offline vocabulary-searching tools were preferred by students (Aust, Kelley, & Roby, 1993; Liou, 2000; Loucky, 2005).

Aust, Kelley, and Roby (1993) claimed that electronic dictionaries involves the use of hyper-references. It is "an electronic reference aid that offers immediate access to supportive information with a clear and direct return path to the target information" (Aust *et al*., 1993, p.64). They confirmed that the used of bilingual hyper-references may benefit students compared to monolingual ones. However, the difference between the uses of these two types of references in reading comprehension was not significant. In relation to this current research, it is clear that writing skills are also shaped by reading ability. The students in this current study read the references and processed them cognitively before they used the references in their writing tasks. The use of software and web-based dictionaries benefitted their learning in PC-and non-PC-bases classes alike.

Liou (2000) explained that the use of electronic dictionaries was an effective strategy for people with lower reading proficiency and there was a tendency for dependence on the use of electronic dictionaries. This claim was found valid in this current study. The students were attached to the use of software and web-based dictionaries. Similar to these findings from these two studies, Loucky (2005) promoted the use of *CALL4ALL.us* for developing learners' reading skills and vocabulary. Loucky claimed that the use of electronic and online dictionaries benefitted Japanese learners. This thesis re-emphasises that further studies on the utilisation of technology-mediated learning and TBLT in teaching writing skills are needed. Directions for further research

and development concerning the combination of these two elements in teaching writing skills are offered in Section 6.5.

5.4.2.1.2 Reference-searching tool

The second category of tools identified in the data is reference-searching tools. These tools were used during both the pre-task and the task cycle due to students' familiarity with search engines. The findings show that Google Search was the dominant tool that the students utilised as recorded in all field notes from the classroom observations. Google Search was recorded as the default search engine on the institution's networks. In general, Indonesian s are familiar with the use of Google Search as it has integrated Indonesian loan words (Parkesit, 2015; Yusuf, 2015). The term '*Mbah Google'* is used in daily conversation referring to the search engine to help Indonesian s to look for any information needed from the Internet as recorded in FGD 9 (see page 183). Therefore, this study claims that students in the study used Google Search because it was the most familiar search engine for them. As it was the only search engine that the students were familiar with, all reference searching was done through Google Search. Students used it to help them look for references and other samples of narrative writing. No literature was found in relation to the use of Google Search in this similar context. However, a study was found on the use of online corpora, such as British National Corpus and Cobuild Corpus, which were found to significantly help in improving Japanese students' writing skills (Gilmore, 2008).

Considering that having access to a large corpus may have helped the students in Gilmore's study to develop their vocabulary to use in their writing, it is equally apparent this the activity of consulting the corpus helped the students' cognitive ability in memorising useful glossaries to use in this study. Similarly, reading authentic texts from unlimited samples available on the Internet could help students to build up their cognitive and creative thinking skills. When students are limited to samples from the lecturers' materials, they might not be able to develop their cognitive skills, and this might also result in boredom and repetition in their own writing.

5.4.2.1.3 Platforms for the learning

Thirdly, the learning platform was another tool that was helpful for writing task completion. These tools were not students' free choice. In Golonka et all. 2014), this form of technology is categorised as "Schoolhouse- or classroom-based technologies"

(2014). This was the result of a top-down policy from the writing module teaching team and students were not involved in deciding the medium of the learning platforms which were assigned to students. This top-down policy is an inherited tradition in the Indonesian education system and students have to accept the learning system chosen by the institution.

As students in Class 1B were restricted from using PCs, they did not use the Word Processors as Class 1A did. Class 1B students used only books for their writing tasks in their Writing 1 Portfolio. Students from Class 1A used Edmodo as their learning platform. A study by Gavota *et al.* (2010) entitled, "Computer-Supported Peer Commenting: A Promising Instructional Method to Promote Skill Development in Vocational Education", indirectly reported the use of wikis and blogs for the teaching of writing skills in vocational education. Wikis and blogs were referred to as tools for developing the concept of 'writing-to-learn' and this current study refers to these as task-based writing skills learning. In this study, Edmodo was used both as an LMS and a 'blog' for students to interact with in written English outside of their physical classroom interaction. Through the TBL approach, students learnt the language by engaging in the process of writing task completion.

This study confirms the same finding as Gavota *et al.* (2010) in this respect. Edmodo was utilised as a platform for the learning cycles in Class 1A and this affected their writing skills. It is associated with Yen, Hou, and Chang's findings (2015) that through peer-to-peer and self-correction, students were able to improve their speaking (10% between pre-test and post-test) and writing skills (11.5% between pre-test and post-test). While their study confirmed that students' speaking and writing skills could be improved by peer-feedback and self-correction through Facebook and Skype, this study explored the effect of Edmodo on the process of learning writing for narrative writing tasks. As the layout and functions of Edmodo was identical with Facebook, this current study highlights similarities with the focus in Yen, Hou, and Chang's work (2015). This conclusion was derived from the qualitative findings. However, Yen, Hou, and Chang observed the use of Facebook and Skype as computer-mediated learning approaches. On the other hand, this study observes the use of Edmodo and portfolios as the tools used to accomplish writing tasks in a task-based learning environment through technology. Compared to Golonka, *et al* (2014), the portfolios used in this study were not electronic; they were a collection of writing drafts in a book.

The use of Edmodo as a learning platform confirms that technology is not an approach for teaching and learning (Brierley & Kemble, 1991). It is a media for teaching and learning. Students from both 1A and 1B groups needed their lecturers to guide them through their learning and the learning was conducted through performing the tasks assigned by the lecturers. The students needed guidance in the stages to complete the tasks. The lecturers were expected to supervise and control the stages of learning. This was because the students were not independent and disciplined according to the stated timeline. Even though they were informed about the submission, they failed to meet the time allocation. Therefore, the function of the lecturer in guiding and supervising the task-based learning cycle was crucial. In Class 1B the function of Edmodo was replaced by handwriting and the physical writing utensils, such as pens, pencils, and paper. Handwriting was the only way for students to complete their writing in Class 1B due to the class design created by the lecturers. For the Class 1B context, the Internet technology was used via mobile phones to access vocabulary-searching and references-searching tools.

In support of Edmodo as a learning platform, I would describe Edmodo solely as a tool. It is a "sensible use" according to Bedford (Bedford, 1991, p.164). By being able to type their writing tasks on PCs and Edmodo in English the learners were able to practice and develop their writing skills. However, a limitation also applied in this case. Students, who wrote writing tasks in their manual portfolio books, did not have the possibility to copy and paste the exact vocabulary items they obtained from their sources. Therefore, these students had the advantage of having more exposure to direct contact with the target language. They wrote every character of the vocabulary in their writing tasks. This effort contributed to long-term memory. Both cases required the use of technology in writing task completion. The manual portfolio replaced the use of Edmodo in this respect. Furthermore, Edmodo can be categorised as a tool in low context. It belongs to Web 2.0 tools as it enabled lecturers to post lessons and learners to submit their tasks and to do collaborative work (Gonzales & St Louis, 2013).

5.4.2.2 Strategies for writing task completion

In reviewing the literature (Section 2.5.7), no studies were found on the association between writing tasks and strategies for task completion. Therefore, this study discusses the result of the findings by evaluating each theme based on its relation to TBLT frameworks. However, the discussion is developed by classifying students' responses

from the FGD sessions and the observation notes. Similar to the discussion on tools for completing the writing task, differences in the way students completed their writing task was not different between Classes 1A and 1B. Therefore, structuring the discussion based on the strategies to complete the writing task is more relevant than class differences. The classification of the strategies is done by using the language learning strategies identified by Oxford (1990) and the observation notes. Oxford's strategies (1990) included memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. With regard to these six strategies, no studies explore them separately.

Metacognitive strategies are identified as "centring your learning" and "evaluating your learning" (Oxford, 1990). In terms of "centring your learning", this current study observed that students paid close attention to the pre-task and the second stage of main task phase, the peer feedback. During these task phases, students activated their metacognitive ability. Without paying close attention to the lecturer during the pre-task, students were prone to make mistakes when following the task instructions. Similarly, in the re-writing stage during the main task phase, students self-monitored and self-evaluated after they received feedback and during the time they worked on re-writing their narrative. They would fail to provide feedback for their peers if they did not pay close attention. With regard to 'centring your learning', Raimes (1987) and Sasaki (2004) claimed that metacognitive strategies were an effective writing strategy that distinguished successful and less successful writers. In relation to the findings from this current study, metacognitive strategies were more observable in the activities performed by the highly motivated students, such as Lulu (FGD 1, Class 1A), Veronica, Devina and Nafiza (FGD 2, Class 1B), Afrisa and Matlal (FGD 5, Class 1B).

Keh (1990) found that students were advantaged by the peer feedback as it allowed students to gain a wider audience. However, this point contradicts the findings from this current study. Even though students gained more readers to read and comment on their work, they tended to devalue their peers' comments. They expected to get the feedback from their lecturers as reported by Devina from Class 1B on FGD 2.

Tsui and Ng (2000) identified four positive roles during peer feedback which contributed toward students' writing progress: enhancing a sense of audience, awareness-raising through reading peers' writings, encouraging collaborative learning, and fostering ownership of the text. This thesis evaluated the strategies implemented by the students of class 1A and 1B applying the writing model by Hayes (2012) as summarised in Figure 5.22.

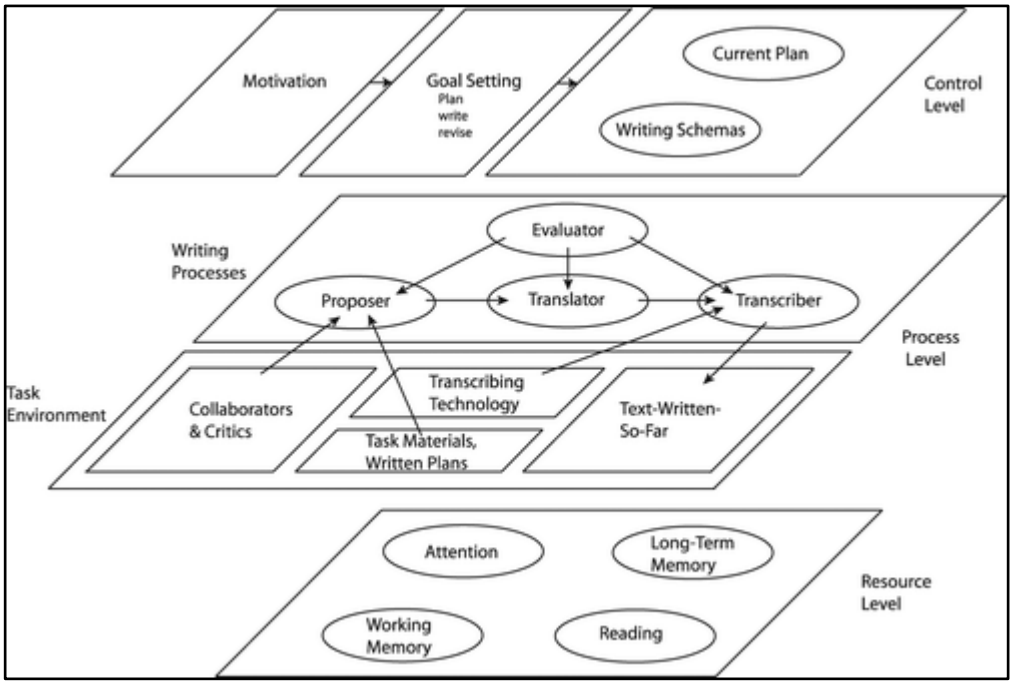

Figure 5.22 Hayes' writing model (2012)

According to Figure 5.22, motivation underlies the ability of students to complete their writing tasks. Motivation works on their willingness to reach the goal of completing the tasks by working though planning, writing and revising their writing task as governed by the TBLT framework and the use of technology. This willingness to engage with the writing process is crucial. These components are part of the control level. During the process level, which occurs during the second task cycle, students went through the real writing process and collaboration by giving feedback. At this stage, they also cooperated with their attention, long-term memory, working memory, and by reading from the materials given by the lecturers: the Writing 1 module handouts and the online resources. All strategies were employed by the students according to these three levels of the writing model.

5.4.2.3 A framework for writing task completion

As the tools and strategies for task completion were integrated into the TBLT framework, this section discusses the framework as an unanticipated finding. It is evident from the data arising from the class observations regarding the task cycle that there are deficiencies in Willis' framework. There were differences in the implementation of the second task cycles. This was because Willis' framework (1996a, 1996b) was designed mainly for listening and speaking skills. The TBLT studies on the teaching of writing skills have not been developed since then. This might also be due to the complex nature of learning writing skills. As writing is considered to be the most

challenging skill to develop rapidly, I conclude that researchers might tend to avoid researching further on the teaching and learning of writing skills through the TBLT approach.

Students of Year 1 enrolled in the Writing 1 module. It was implemented as a compulsory module for the first-year students. It was composed of 1 credit for theory and 2 credits for practice; in combination it was a total of 135 minutes of classroom hours. In this case, Year 1 students were focussed on learning essential elements of paragraph writing. The first-year students were introduced to the writing skills by combining words into topic sentences to develop paragraphs. As the level of students' English proficiency was very low for university level (average TOEIC score was 367 and equalled to A2-Basic User on CEFR), Basic English writing skills were required. Implementing ESP writing tasks would be very challenging for students and might cause demotivation. The tasks that students performed in the Writing 1 module were in the form of paragraphs and essays on various topics assigned by their lecturers, ranging from descriptive to argumentative genres. Within the semester, there were eighteen meetings focusing on learning to write paragraphs, from sentence development to types of different types of paragraphs. In this study, only one topic was observed: the narrative writing process. As explained in the Methodology chapter, it was only focused on one writing topic due to the time constraints of the study. Even though the task-based approach was not literally written on the lesson plan, the teaching team designed the learning process, dividing it into three task cycles: lecture, writing, and feedback. Through the one-to-one interviews with the lecturers, it was recorded that they claimed to implement the TBLT approach. However, none of the syllabus for the Writing module recorded the teaching approach implemented. In the development of the study, a TBLT approach was implemented for a pilot class during an earlier stage. This teaching design was implemented by colleagues of the researcher at the institution without acknowledgement and consulting in advanced. Therefore, it was recorded in observation notes during the main study that the TBLT framework was not implemented to its optimum level.

Students were expected to be able to write different types of paragraph, including expository and narrative, descriptive, comparison and contrast, persuasive, argumentative, cause and effect, and problem and solution paragraphs. Classroom observation was conducted during the narrative paragraph sessions and indicated that as students' English level was very low, they had challenges with both the English

vocabulary and grammar. Having low English proficiency was a clear issue which influenced their ability to complete the writing task. In this narrative paragraph, it was expected that students would not really have to expend too much effort as narrative paragraphs are considered to be a basic composition task. Students did not expect to explore logic, which might require advanced vocabulary and the use of complex compound sentences. However, as reported in the findings sections of this chapter, students were dependent on the use of technology in terms of vocabulary-searching and reference-searching tools to complete their narrative tasks. This section emphasises that the use of technology could not be separated from the framework of TBLT for writing skills.

This study claims Willis' framework is not entirely relevant for the teaching and learning of writing skills. Therefore, a framework based on Willis (1996a, 1996b, 1998, 2000) is proposed by presenting the second task cycle with a focus on writing skills. While Willis introduced students to do the task in pair or small groups with a teacher monitoring the process, this study found that students could be given freedom to work in pairs, in groups or by themselves in order to complete their narrative tasks. Narrative tasks are not registered in any task type suggested in previous research studies, therefore this is a new task type that emerges from the data in this study. This finding was unexpected and suggests that tasks can be in any form of communicative activities related to the four language skills. Task type is unlimited. Each writing type can be a task type related to writing skills. Only one study by Conor (1996) was identified focusing on writing task types. Conor (1996) divided L2 writing task types in terms of the type of text, such as descriptive, narrative, expository, and argumentative or persuasive writing. This study, therefore, support Conor's claim for the L2 writing task

Therefore, the first point that this thesis would like to contribute is that Willis' TBL framework (Willis, 1996a, 1998, 2000) needs adjustment for teaching writing skills. Willis (1996a, 1996b) divided the TBLT learning cycle into pre-task, task cycle, and language focus. This study follows the general framework, although, it separates the main task cycle into task, peer feedback and rewriting. Thus, this study proposes a framework for writing skills using TBL by making an adjustment to Willis' idea (Figure 5.23).

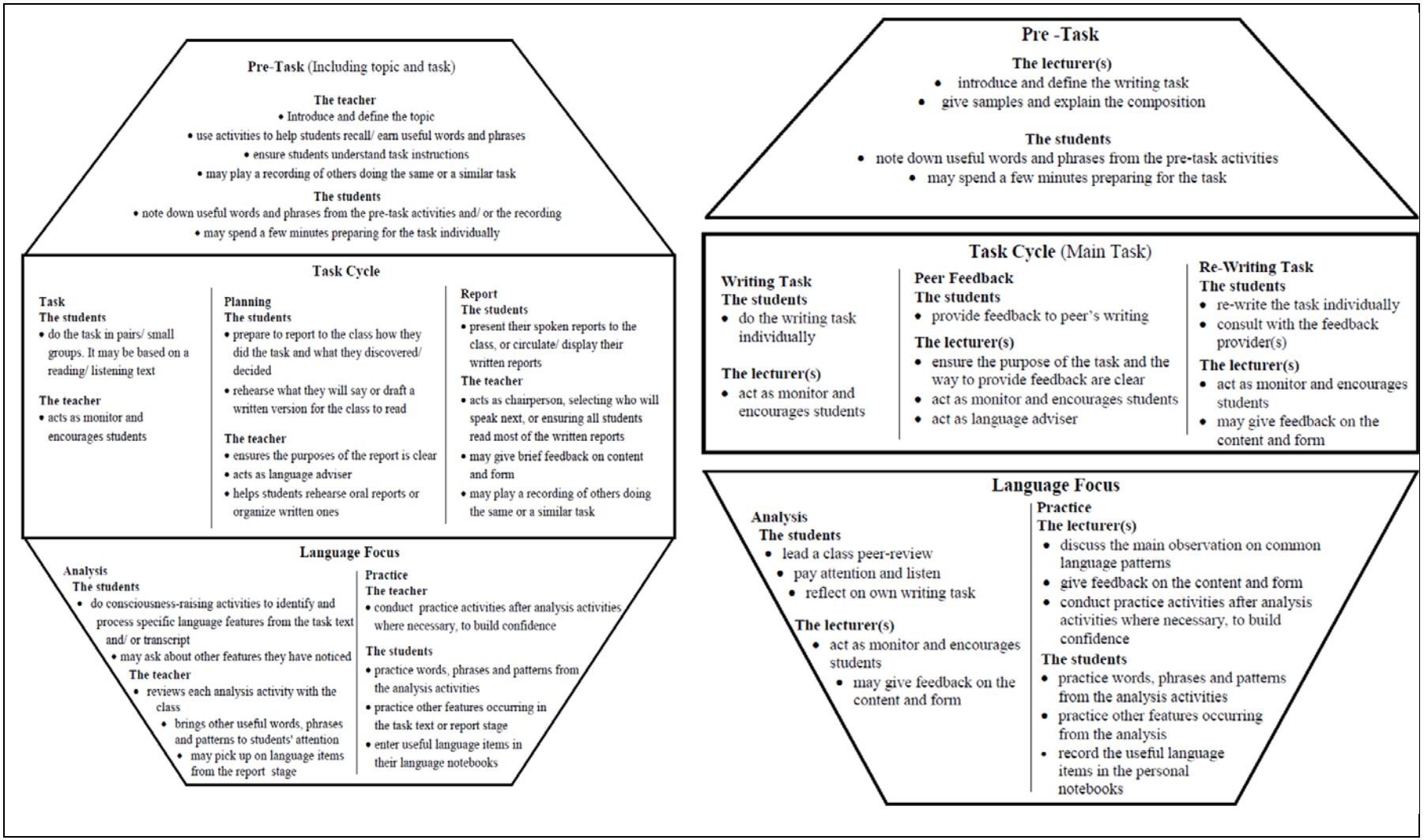

Figure 5.23 Left: Willis' TBLT Framework (1996a; 2000; 1998), Right: The Adapted TBL Framework for Writing Skill

Figure 5.23 shows the comparison between Willis' TBLT frameworks (the left portion of the diagram) and the proposed framework of the writing skill TBL (the right portion of the diagram). The framework on the right is developed from Willis' TBL framework, which was based on the listening and speaking tasks. While Willis suggested dividing the cycle into three sub cycles: main task, planning, and report, this study adjusts it into Task 1 (the writing), Peer feedback, and Task 2 (Re-writing). These changes were mainly because this study strongly suggests that writing skills' development is about process-oriented learning, the learning that focuses on the importance of doing the task instead of the outcome of the learning. The process of learning to convey meaning into a composition of written ideas in a foreign language was the main concern as the core of learning is in the act of doing the task. During the main task cycle, the cognitive process takes place. Students work on transferring the idea they have in their mind into English vocabulary (the signified and the signifiers) and structure their ideas into the right form of sentences following the English language patterns. Thus, the task should follow the process of writing development, revising, and re-writing.

The freedom to decide whether to work individually or in pairs can contribute to developing relaxing atmosphere that is conducive to learning. Learning from the findings from this current study and the research literature, I conclude that freedom of choice in deciding how to carry out a task contributes to motivating learning. The way students completed their tasks in this study was governed by idea development through vocabulary search. Regardless of the use of PCs and smartphones, the majority of the students used the vocabulary-searching tools in similar ways. The difference became obvious in relation to the way they inserted the vocabulary into their writing task. As students of Class 1A worked on PCs, they simply copied and pasted the vocabulary items into the lines of their narrative in the Microsoft Word Document and then to the Edmodo Wall Posts. On the other hand, students of 1B had to write down every letter into the lines of their narrative task on the piece paper of their portfolio in the Writing module. In this case, it was easier for students of 1A as they also reported in FGD sessions. However, students from 1B became well-trained in writing down the vocabulary into their writing tasks. It helped them to unconsciously remember the spelling of the vocabulary because they spent more effort to look for the right meaning and words and transferred them to their writing as indicated by Veronica in FGD 2 compared to the copy-paste performed by the Class 1A students. In this case, students

of 1B were advantaged by this practice as it activated their cognitive ability in acquiring new vocabulary.

Hunt and Beglar (2002) referred to this process as “incidental vocabulary learning” as students acquired new vocabulary incidentally or as a “by-product” from reading and writing activities. In a much earlier study on vocabulary and foreign language learning, Seal (1991) suggested that minimum exposure should be given to the teaching of vocabulary. It should be “unplanned” as vocabulary should be taught unsystematically. The learning should arise as students experience problems with vocabulary to express their ideas. This study identifies this is a very important point to pick up by lecturers. This incidental vocabulary learning that came up in the writing stage (Main Task), could be another important point to discuss in the Language Focus phase if it was identified as an important vocabulary item that was unknown to the majority of the students. In addition, Seal (1991) also reported that dictionary usage followed by effective vocabulary recording contributes to the ability of students to be independent learners. These results are consistent with previous research in the Indonesian context for EFL learners. Priyono (2004), for example, claimed that lexical properties influence the learning of grammatical aspects. It was suggested that the teaching of aspects of grammar and meaning are supported by the teaching of EFL vocabulary. By activating students to complete writing tasks, it is expected that students acquire the English patterns and writing skills through the exposure to the tasks.

Students from both groups 1A and 1B constructed their writing by forming sentences into paragraphs and revising them based on the feedback provided by their classmates and lecturers. Therefore, this thesis claims that “incidental vocabulary learning” took place in the writing skills’ TBLT framework. In relation to feedback that students received from their peers, several studies had recorded that feedback affected students’ motivation both positively and negatively. Feedback is crucial during the peer-feedback phase in the second cycle of the TBLT framework (Nelson & Schunn, 2009).

The next section explores a proposed technology-mediated TBLT writing skills framework based on the evaluation on the observation conducted in this study.

5.4.2.3.1 Pre-Task

In this study, it has been evident that the pre-task phase was performed similarly to Willis proposed pre-task cycle as recorded in the field notes. All students were recorded

to follow the pre-task cycle similarly. The lecturer introduced students to the topic and the writing task they were about to perform. It was recorded that the lecturer explored the narrative topic for the writing task by providing samples on their PPT Slides and discussed the element of the writing. Help was also given to students to understand the instructions and prepare their narrative writing outlines.

This study identified a general similarity between the framework from Willis and the observed application of TBLT approach to teaching writing skills. As this study was not designed as an experimental one, it explored the teaching practice at the target institution. It was designed as exploratory research from the local implementation of TBLT. It focused on observations of how the students learned through TBLT approaches implemented by the lecturers based on their local practices of TBLT. The researcher did not design a treatment to any classes. Moreover, there were no training on Willis' TBLT framework given to the lecturers. No model was given to the lecturers but what they did in their teaching practice enabled the development of Willis model. Willis model does not fit well with the process of writing task completion as observed. No investigation was conducted on whether the lecturers were aware of Willis' TBLT framework. This study solely observed the similarity between the teaching organizations with the Willis' TBLT framework. This was evident on the second task cycle. The task cycle was not divided by main task, planning and report. However, this study observed similar patterns of phases of learning from the sequence of teaching observed. Writing, peer-feedback and re-writing were performed.

5.4.2.3.2. The Second Task Cycle

In contrast to the pre-task phase, Willis' framework for the task cycle (1996a, 1998, 2000) was performed partially. Based on Willis' framework, three stages should take place (see Section 2.2.2): the task, the planning, and the report. The planning and report of the task cycle did not take place in this study. This thesis claims that Willis' framework was not designed for writing-specific task; it is not sufficient for this teaching context. As its development, TBLT was developed mainly for the communicative purpose. By communicative, it literally means for spoken interaction instead of writing interaction.

Moreover, in its development, the literature reported studies TBLT approaches for the teaching of listening and speaking skills. Focussing on speaking and listening

skills are identified from Willis' framework. Because of its speaking-listening focused task, the framework does not fit well with the writing skills context.

Based on the observation from the study, the task cycle was only made of the main task (i.e., writing) leaving out the "planning and "report" phases. As reported in the finding section, the planning and report stages were not implemented due to the nature of the task itself. Students did not report to the class about their speaking activities. This cycle during the observation was doe only with one phase due to the lecturer's concern on the students' motivation. On a direct communication later on after the data collection and the semester had completed, a WhatsApp-mediated communication was conducted to justify this finding. The main lecturer of both classes justify that it was done on purpose as during the observation period, the lecturers were focusing on getting the students write. On the later class meeting, the peer-feedback and re-writing phases were recorded on their portfolio (both Edmodo and books). On its aim to observe this study from only on students' learning, no analysis was conducted on the lecturers' foreknowledge on TBLT and task design and kind of training they had had prior to implementing the TBLT approaches. This study solely observed the on-going learning process without exploring it on why the tasks were designed in this way and why the lecturer adapted a series of stages which were different to Willis' framework. It was assumed that the lecturers did not fully understand TBLT approach and further training was needed. They only knew that the teaching should utilise activities performed by the students without teaching them the English patterns in the beginning of the teaching cycle.

In the document analysis on the Edmodo of Class 1B, it was recorded that both peer-feedback and re-writing phases were implemented. Students during peer feedback session, read and provided feedback to their peers' writing. During the peer-feedback (the replacement for Planning phase), students exchanged their portfolio books (1B) and comment of each other's Edmodo posts (for 1A). This task was aimed for enabling students to provide feedback to each other's writing. Then, they re-wrote (replacing Report phase) their writing based on suggestion from their peer. According to Tribble (1996), as the focus was on writing, it is logical that the main cycle was focused on exposing student to writing skill, revising, and re-writing as the way learning writing skills was approached was recommended. It supports the claims that this current study made that the main task phase should be adapted to fit the needs for writing skill development.

The report phase should be replaced by re-writing phase (Figure 5.16). Therefore, the second cycle from Willis' framework was not confirmed in the study. The planning and report phases were missing. Students were not required to make any report. This planning task was then replaced by the peer-feedback session. Based on the observation, the lecturers required the students to follow as instructed. It was observed naturally that it was the flow to proceed. Students wanted to know what needed to be improved from their writing. The last phased from the second task cycle is the re-writing. In this phase, the writings were returned to the peer writers who then revised their writing based on the feedback provided.

Based on the findings, this study proposes to divide the task cycle into three phases by replacing the planning and report to peer-feedback and re-writing. The reason for this is that feedback without re-writing the task for improvement is the essence of the learning. By doing the revision based on the feedback from readers will develop students' metacognitive ability and language creativity. It activates efforts to construct strings of meaningful words into correct patters of the language. Therefore, the task cycle for the writing skills are: main task, peer-feed backing, and re-writing.

This proposal for adjusting Willis' framework for the writing skills was not be based on a thorough analysis as this study was not designed for evaluating the framework. It is a by-product based on the observation from the local TBLT practices. Further investigation on this proposed framework should be conducted in future research. Furthermore, the report phase is proposed to be replaced by re-writing. The findings have recorded that this second phase of the TBL framework is the crucial phase

In a study on listening tasks by Seedhouse and Almutairi (2009) whom observed task cycle from the point of view of 'task-as-workplan', 'task-in process', and 'task-as-outcome' they found that the core of language learning process took place within the task second cycle in the TBLT framework. Even though both studies were not based on similar focus of learning, however, this current study strengthens Seedhouse and Almutairi's finding from writing skills perspective. Adding to their results, this study enriches Seedhouse and Almutairi's finding (2009) that the actual teaching and learning process that occurs in the classroom is in the second stage of the task cycle. As they claimed, the main task was the task-in-process when the actual communicative goal. Moreover, anything that the learners produced as the result of their learning is the physical product of the learning itself. This claim is supported by the results from this study's field notes. As it was observed that students were actively working on their

writing tasks during the task cycle. The TBL framework activated students to use the language as a medium of getting their message across. The peer-feed backing then helped them to reshape the meaning they intended to get across. In addition, the proposed framework for writing skill using TBL in this study has contributed to supporting Seedhouse and Almutairi's finding.

Later on, on the Language Focus cycle, students reported to the class the grammatical and vocabulary errors that they identified from their friends' writing. This reporting that was a speaking-based task was conducted during the Analysis session.

5.4.2.3.3 Language Focus

The Language Focus was adopted from Willis' framework (1996): analysis and practice. However, the analysis was a student-led analysis which started with the peer feedback session. After that, one student performed before the class. S/he should be presenting about the writing that s/he worked on. Presenting the error that s/he found should be the next stage. During this session, feedback and suggestions for correction should be articulated. The lecturer then reviewed the feedback and suggestions from the presenter. In addition, the focus on the language input and correction are emphasised in this session.

The practice session is then led by the lecturer. Students are guided to do the practice activities. During this session, students wrote down the sentences from their writing task into a separate note listing the sentences they got incorrect and the revised version. In the end, they rewrite their narrative writing.

During the peer-feedback cycle, students actively evaluated their classmates' writing. When students rewrote their writing based on the feedback they received from the second task cycle, they were actively monitoring the word use and revising their mistakes. The monitoring action was done through the Edmodo (1A) and on the portfolio (1B). The tools they used were based on the instructions from the lecturers. For those from 1B, they monitored their lexicons and grammar through the Edmodo. On the other hands, Class 1B students monitored their writing on their portfolios; a class book for Writing 1 module. This reflected on the next task cycle they were doing. Comparison to other studies on this Language Focus phase could not be made due to the limited study available in the literature on writing skill.

The language focus is proposed to be an analysis and practice phase (Willis, 1996a). First, analysis dealt with the tasks to examine and discuss particular features of the peers' writing. The practice was the section when the lecturer took over the role by conducting practice of new vocabulary, phrases and forms occurring in the writings. However, this study introduces the analysis differently. While Willis' framework identified that the lecturer should lead the analysis, this study proposes a student-led analysis. It is aimed at exposing students to grow their confidence to speak out their opinion. The target for this subsection is to develop speaking skills that was intended at the report subsection on Willis' framework. Students were given an opportunity to get extra point to present their feedback on their peer's writing to the class. This opportunity would be a rewarding act that will increase motivation. Field note 3 indicated that students were excited to come to present their feedback in front of the class as in the beginning of the semester they were informed that they would gather points from volunteering for the analysis. It was recorded that reward affected motivation positively.

It was noted in field notes that student led the class by providing a sample that had been checked. At this student-led analysis session, errors found in a peer's writing was described and suggestions for changing were articulated to the class. For the practice cycle, the lecturer led the class by providing language feedback and guided students to practice based on the language focus they were focusing on based on the common mistake that the majority of the students performed during their second task cycle. It is the difference from the framework by Willis. While Willis focussed the third task cycle governed by the lecturer, this study proposes to activate students' participation in the first half of the language focus cycle.

5.5 Summary

5.5.1 Summary of the affective factors

This chapter has explored the findings and discussed the factors affecting students' motivation in technology-mediated TBL learning in writing classes to answer RQ2. Despite these differences among classes and motivation levels, the online questionnaire recorded students' perceptions of the relationship between motivation, writing tasks, and the use of technology. Based on the results from both quantitative and qualitative data, the motivation to learn English writing was influenced positively by:

1) Novelty (the use of internet and digital technology, time efficiency)
2) The lecturers' character (psychological factors, the way of providing feedback)
3) Unknown factors (economic and environmental issue)
4) Classmate's learning enthusiasm (psychological factor)
5) Family condition (economic reason)

On the other hand, the students became demotivated because of:

1) Unknown factors (environmental issues, time efficiency)
2) The lecturers' character (psychological factors, the way of providing feedback)
3) Classmate's learning enthusiasm (psychological factors)
4) Family condition (economic reasons, psychological factors)
5) The use of technology (technological issue)

5.5.2 The way students complete technology-mediated TBL writing tasks

This chapter has presented the discussion for each theme on the third research question RQ3 3 (How do students complete technology-mediated TBLT tasks?). It has shown that the use of internet technology cannot be limited in the writing classes. The results of this investigation show that limiting students to use the computer and Internet facilities recorded as ineffective. It is because students have unlimited access to the internet technology; they will find a solution to get back to accessing it as observed from the classroom observations and the field notes. Students used of other alternatives to PCs and accessed similar dictionary platforms from their mobile phones. However, students also opted for the use of a printed dictionary of their own choice. When students were restricted from the use of computers in their learning, they would swap the functions to their smartphones. This is because there was no strict limitation on the use of technology. For the class that used only conventional writing equipment, Class 1B, online technology to facilitate learning was available on the students' mobile phones. The lecturers were not able to stop them from not accessing their personal devices.

Furthermore, the volume of writing that they needed to check, and students that they needed to assist, limited the lecturers' ability to observe the misconduct. As students were oriented to get good scores for the module, they bypassed the procedures by switching from printed dictionaries to Google Translate, the software in the computer network, online dictionary and smartphones applications. Students were externally motivated to get good academic scores. They would utilise different ways to

meet their needs for accessing technology-based tools to help them completing their tasks. Consequently, they explored other technological aids when their access to computer technology was limited. The qualitative data provided richer insights than the quantitative data into the tools the students used to help them with the vocabulary search in completing their writing tasks. Findings on the specific tools that were used by students emerged from both the quantitative and qualitative data. Significant findings extracted from both data types indicated that limited vocabulary was the main reasons for students to utilise digital dictionaries. The use of technology is very influential in ubiquitous learning.

The most obvious finding to emerge from this study is that direct and indirect strategies introduced by Oxford (1990). Students applied six strategies in various ways throughout the writing task completion.

After presenting and discussing all the evidence from both the quantitative and qualitative data, the next chapter presents the conclusions of the study and contributions to knowledge.

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

Investigating the use of a technology-mediated TBL approach in English writing classes at a vocational higher education institution was the main objective of this study. Furthermore, evaluating students' perceptions of their motivation for English language learning alongside their observed experience in implementing technology-mediated TBL was central to my research. In general, the study aimed to:

- evaluate students' motivation in learning English writing skills in vocational higher education at a polytechnic in Indonesia;
- explore the application of technology-mediated TBLT in teaching English writing skills in an ESP context.

These aims were achieved by answering three research questions listed in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 The research questions and specific aims

Research Questions	Specific Aims
1. How do Indonesian EFL students' perceptions about motivation to learn English writing skills reflect their experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom?	Investigating English learning motivation in vocational higher education.
2. What are the factors that affect students' motivation to complete their English writing tasks in a technology-mediated task-based approach?	Offering insights into the problematic area of low motivated students, which could be applicable to other contexts.
3. How do students complete technology-mediated TBL writing tasks?	Development of technology-mediated TBLT in ESP in Indonesia.

6.2 Overall summary of the findings

Chapelle (2001) suggested that any proposed technology-mediated learning should be evaluated for its 1) language learning potential, 2) learner fit, 3) meaning focus, 4) authenticity, 5) impact and (6) practicality. Work carried out in the present study indicates these criteria are appropriate and they are used when evaluating the answers to the research questions. This study has identified three main outcomes relating to learner motivation: 1) the factors that affect the motivation to improve English writing skills, 2) the use of computer technology, and 3) the way students accomplished their English writing tasks.

This study claims that the internet provides the potential connection for the students to connect in English with their classmates and lecturers outside of the classroom, as well as English users around the world. Secondly, the results of this current study indicated that the students wanted to learn English regardless of their motives for learning. Thirdly, the value of meaning-focused learning was emphasised at the end of the task-based cycle. The students were guided to understand their mistakes in English grammar, vocabulary, and the organisation of ideas during the writing process. Responding to the authenticity concern, it was clear that the lecturers had included authentic materials in their teaching materials. They provided examples from authentic writing situations and instructed the students to produce their own writing based on their own experience for the Year 1 groups and English correspondence for business-related situations based on a role-play for the Year 2 groups. For the Year 3 groups, the students were instructed to create news reports based on the situation in their surrounding area. The impact of their learning was indicated in their responses to questionnaire Item 6. 56% of the students of three-year groups reported strong agreement with the use of internet technology and the idea that this made their learning of English writing skills more interesting. Lastly, it was practical for the students to use these technologies in their learning as internet technology was ubiquitous and they had grown up with it. The institution's policies regulated the learning of English writing skills in the multimedia laboratories and it was a practical consequence of this that the student used the facilities.

The next section summarises the findings based on the study's research questions.

6.2.1 The way students perceived their motivation and experience in Technology-Mediated TBL Writing classes

The first qualitative findings showed that students from different levels of study expressed different levels of motivation and differed in their perceptions of the relationship between their English learning motivation and the use of technology in their actual task completion. Year 1 students reported different perceptions of motivation and the use of technology in their task-based learning. Those from the non-technology-based class insisted they wanted to learn the way they were projected to learn in the non-technology-based situation without the aid of technology. In reality they used mobile phones to access the internet instead of the internet-based PCs to assist

them in completing their writing tasks. Year 1 students in the technology-based class were sure that access to internet tools were helpful. Year 2 students reported that learning through computer technology increased or decreased depending on which three stages of the learning process (i.e., pre-, task, and post-tasks) implemented the use of internet technology. Year 3 students were the most confident and stated that they were convinced that the use of technology motivated them to complete their writing tasks, especially the news script writing tasks.

This study confirms that language learning motivation is a dynamic process and underlines the importance of understanding learner motivation. Without this understanding it is not possible to explore and measure the advantages of using technology and task-based instruction. Therefore, this thesis underlines the importance of understanding learner motivation as "growing reasons that contribute to changes in a person's willingness to learn certain languages".

Secondly, the types of language learning motivation applicable to foreign language learning in a vocational setting cannot be understood simply as either integrative or instrumental. It was found that there was a third type of language learning motivation. The students in this study demonstrated that they combined both types throughout their learning cycles. Although not a focus of this study, the finding is an interesting and important by-product of the investigation.

This study found that the students' perception of their motivation to learn English was not reflected in their learning of English writing skills. The TBL approach combined with the use of technology affected their learning. The students could not be separated from the use of technology. Whatever type of motivation they had, they needed the web-based and digital technologies as the tools to get their writing tasks completed. When the use of PCs was limited in the non-PC class, the students swapped the use of PCs for mobile phones. In this case, motivation levels and types did not help to differentiate the quality of learning taking place.

6.2.2 The reasons for being motivated or demotivated in the learning of English writing skills

In relation to the reasons for being motivated to learn English skills in writing modules, students stated that the use of computer and internet technology positively affected their motivation in six ways: 1) novelty, 2) technical advantages to task completion, 3) economic reasons, 4) environmental issues, 5) time considerations, and 6) psychological

factors. Moreover, task-based writing activities were motivating because of three factors: 1) time consideration, 2) holistic learning, and 3) feedback-based learning. In contrast, three factors demotivated students who were following a technology-mediated TBL approach: 1) lecturers, 2) classmates, and 3) unknown issues.

The analysis of the qualitative data showed that the most influential motivating or demotivating factor in in the students' learning was the lecturers' attitude, not the use of technology.

6.2.3 The way students complete Technology-Mediated TBL writing tasks

The last findings from the qualitative results show that students could not stop themselves from accessing internet resources to improve their learning and to accomplish their writing tasks. Regardless of their levels of competence or year groups, students had different ways of completing their writing tasks although the translation-based approach was primary when developing their English writing tasks. Google Translate was the most dominant tool they utilised in the process of task completion.

To summarise the findings for RQ3, an overview of the technology-mediated TBL approach in the learning of English writing skills highlights that the practice of the current teaching needs adjustment in order to create a more motivating effect on students' writing abilities.

6.3 Evaluating the study

Six research evaluation questions from Lian and Pertiwi (2017), listed below, are used to explore the limitations of this study

1) The object of study: What new perspectives were engaged to describe the object of study?
2) The method of study: What new understandings were identified to devise the method of investigation?
3) The beneficiaries of the study: Who was the beneficiary of the study? What new understandings of the research participants' contexts were engaged and how were they impacted by the study?
4) The critical perspective: How was the world (a broad range of perspectives) integrated into the study?

5) The political perspective: How were the policies integrated into the study?
6) The generative perspective: What new forms of practice emerged as a result of the new ways of theorising?

The first question deals with the objective of the study. I will discuss new things I have learnt as a result of my involvement in this project. This study emerged from observation that the use of technology in the teaching of writing skills could motivate students and improve their writing ability. The study explored students' perceptions of their English learning motivation and learning process through writing tasks and the use of PCs and mobile technology. It identified the specific tools from PC and mobile networks that students used to complete their writing tasks. Furthermore, it also observed the strategies that students implemented to get their writing tasks completed. However, this study did not offer a detailed investigation related to writing task completion; instead it explored the general tools and strategies which students used. While it was important to obtain a general overview of what students were doing in each task cycle, it is hoped that reference to the specific processes that enriched this study will provide a contribution to the existing body of knowledge.

The second question deals with the method of the study. Firstly, following the recommended technology-mediated TBL framework generated from this study, the lecturers at the *PNP* will be able to explore its conclusions. It is expected that it will be a wake-up call to the lecturers to remind them that change is needed in the ways in which they currently only partially implement the technology-mediated TBL approach.

The third question refers to the beneficiaries of the study. An answer to the question of who the beneficiaries of the study were, what new understandings of the research participants' contexts were engaged and how were they impacted by the study is discussed here. All the stakeholders in the institution will benefit from this study. These include the researcher, the students, the lecturers, and the institution in general, together with other parties interested in this topic of research.

The lecturers in the institution will learn that the way they implement the technology-mediated TBL approach did not follow the framework thoroughly. This might be because there was no research reported which implemented it. Therefore, the policy on the teaching of English writing skills at the institution needs to be reformed. It is recognised that many lecturers will readily accept change and, therefore, improve and develop their programme of study. Others, however, may be defensive of their way of

teaching the English writing modules. This is all understandable. However, policy makers in the institution need to be informed of the results of the study, so that standards are raised, and this results in the betterment of the teaching and learning processes.

The students who took part in the research benefitted from their engagement in this technology-mediated TBLT approach by having more interesting ways of learning English writing skills. As reported in the FGD sessions, students stated that learning writing skills was hard and challenging. It was also considered to be a boring subject. They did not enjoy learning it in the conventional learning context. Moreover, the lecturers also benefitted from the technology-mediated TBL approach. As noted during the classroom observations, the lecturers enjoyed having more free time to relax while waiting for the students to finish their writing during the main writing cycle (the second task cycle). However, they became very busy providing feedback by the end of the second task cycle providing feedback for the submitted writing. This situation was found to be a better compared to the class the TBL cycle without the use of internet technology, as applied in Class 1B. The classroom became very noisy and uncontrollable during the feedback session because the students kept walking to different classmates and approaching the lecturers. Everyone talked, and a chaotic situation was observed. Further consideration is needed about how to best maintain discipline.

This application of technology-mediated TBLT benefits the Indonesian education. The utilisation of this approach might alter the Indonesian students' learning habits; swapping learning paradigms from lecturer-dependence to independent learning. Consequently, lecturers will be able to appreciate how they can allocate their time more effectively between guiding and improving students' ability.

The fourth question evaluates how the world was integrated into the study. How engagement in this study helped the researcher redefine what was important in the teaching of English writing skills, and on what grounds the researcher did or did not change her mind, are among the questions used to evaluate the study following the fourth evaluation guideline. The important matter in the teaching of English writing skills was that feedback was needed to enable the students to learn and improve their writing and English abilities. The engagement in this study helped the researcher redefine her understanding of the importance of feedback in improving writing skills. During the researcher's experience as an English writing student, she rarely received

feedback for her writing. In the conventional, product-oriented, teaching of English writing skills, students only received feedback as part of the final grades on their writing. There were no chances to improve the writing and make any progress. The learning of writing skills was a product-oriented learning approach. In this case, this study has shaped the researcher's view that a process-oriented approach to writing skills is a necessity for English writing modules.

The fifth question will now be addressed. In order to answer the question on the political perspective of how the policies were integrated into the study, an explanation will be given of how this study helped the researcher link her teaching with the National Standard of Higher Education's (NSHE) policies in Indonesia. There was no national standard for how English writing skills should be taught in higher education; it is a localised policy. During the data collection stages, the researcher needed to adjust to the teaching policies at that time. Therefore, the study became a purely observational and exploratory one. However, the researcher is confident that the results of this study will influence the national policy on the implementation of technology-mediated TBL in improving students' English learning motivation and proficiency in the future.

The last point of evaluation relates to the generative perspective. New forms of practice emerged as a result of the new ways of theorising the technology-mediated TBL approach in relation to motivating students in English writing classes; this is a result of the application of the framework of technology-mediated TBL. Arising from this study, it is suggested that the implementation of technology-mediated TBL should follow the adjusted TBL framework for English writing skills developed through this study. In order to gain the full benefits of the new framework, it is recommended that research on this subject follows the framework thoroughly.

The next section focuses on the contributions of this study to the research of motivation and technology-mediated TBL, and Indonesian EFL teaching and practice.

6.4 Contributions

As reviewed in chapters 2 and 3 of the literature reviews, this study used Gardner's model (2007) and Willis' TBL Framework (Willis, 1996a, 1996b, 1998, 2000). This research contributes to the body of knowledge in three areas, as reported in the following sub-sections.

6.4.1 Contributions to motivation research

This study contributes to the literature in terms of its types of motivation variables. Previous studies focused on the intrinsic/extrinsic or integrated/instrumental types of motivation. In contrast, this study emphasised the importance of the motivation level that the students thought they had as their drive for learning a foreign language. In the beginning of the quantitative data analysis, it was noticed that, for the specific context of learners, motivation level and types of motivation did not contribute positively to the learning process.

In Chapter 4, the data indicated that students with higher levels of motivation were affected by the classroom learning context that was made up of the cultural and the educational contexts. Students' attitude toward the learning situation then contradicted their high motivation and disintegrated them from learning.

Therefore, the model from Gardner (2007) describes how the cultural context and educational context contributed to students' motivation in acquiring a certain language in a second and a foreign language learning context. This study found that, even though the students had a very high level of motivation, if the cultural and educational contexts were not supportive, their motivation for the learning might be affected. Therefore, the goals of the language learning might not be reached.

6.4.2 Contributions to Technology-Mediated TBL approach

In Chapter 5, data collected during this study indicated that the task-based cycle which was proposed by Willis (1996a, 1996b, 1998, 2000) needed adjustment for the teaching of writing skills. An important adjustment was therefore made to the second and third cycles to match the needs of process-based writing activities. Figure 6.1 describes an important contribution that this thesis has identified with respect to the proposed adjustment to Willis' TBL framework as explained in Chapter 5.

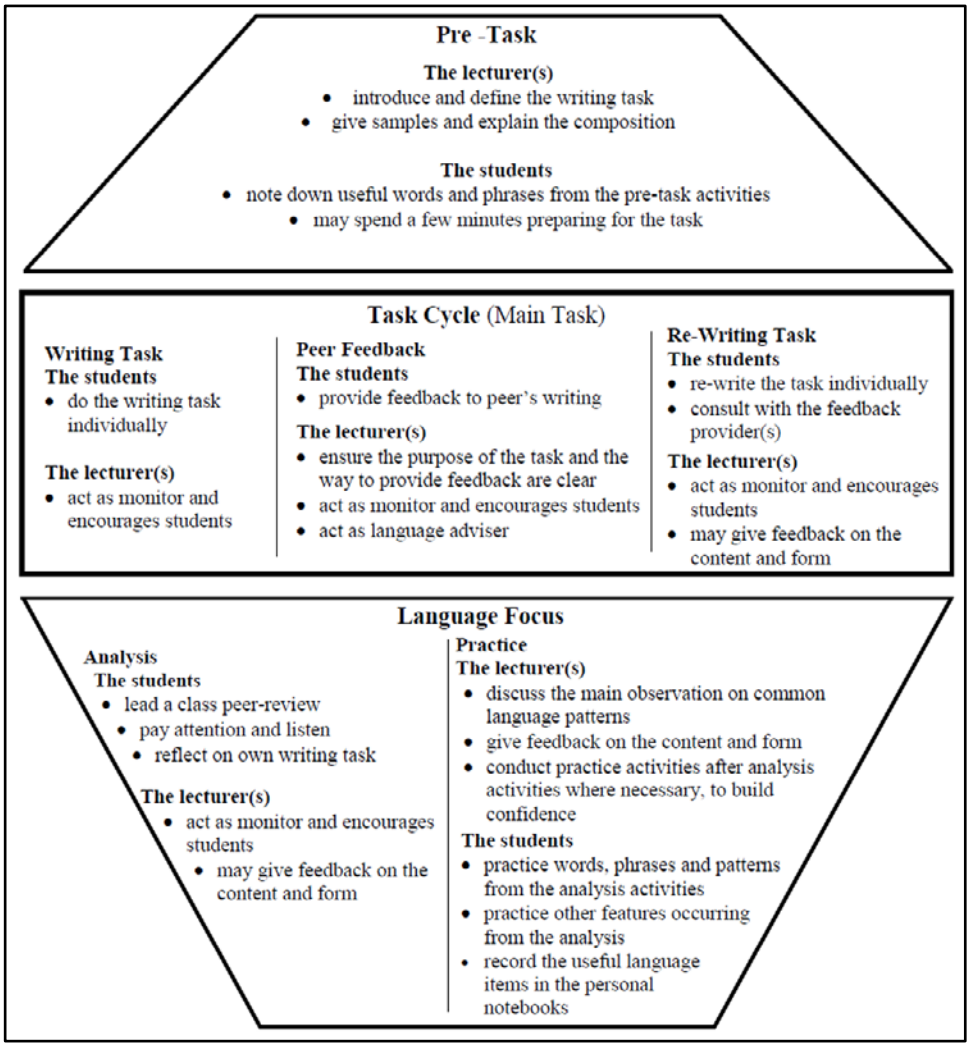

Figure 6.1 The Proposed Framework for Technology-Mediated TBL Approach

As shown in Figure 6.1, this study contributes to the development of the TBL framework by exploiting the use of internet technology to assist EFL students in developing their English writing skills. The framework can also be implemented in the teaching of L1 or other second and foreign languages in the future.

6.4.3 Contributions to Indonesian EFL teaching and practice

In terms of a technology-mediated TBL-related enquiry in an Indonesian vocational higher education context, no literature was found in relation to the use of this approach and its effect on English writing motivation. Therefore, this study is the first conducted in Indonesia and makes a major contribution to the development of EFL teaching in the country. It sets out the way to conduct a mixed methods study in a vocational higher education setting, specifically in terms of its ethical procedures. In the researcher's previous experience, colleagues conducted their research without considering its ethical

implications as the system in Indonesia does not include this as a standard practice for educational research.

Secondly, it contributes to the practice of teaching EFL in a vocational context. The study also contributes to the development of our understanding of how to best use technology-mediated TBL for vocational teaching purposes. It is hoped that in the long run, it will impact on the production of teaching materials and the design of an assessment rubric.

6.5 Implications

Let us consider two main implications from this study. Firstly, the pedagogical implications. When discussing the English learning motivation level, the researcher noticed that language learning motivation was affected by the classroom learning motivation. Even though a student had a high level of motivation or had integrative or intrinsic motivation for learning English, it might not be reflected in their attitude to participating in writing classes. Therefore, lecturers should not rely on the utilisation of a technology-mediated TBL approach to keep students motivated whilst completing their writing tasks. As observed in the Technical Writing 1 module in Class 2A, both lecturers sat in their seats in front of the class. As a consequence, some students, who were noted as motivated students, indicated losing their motivation to do the writing task and switched to irrelevant internet browsing and visual design activities during the main task cycle.

Therefore, the pedagogical implications that arose from this study are relevant to the lecturers who are concerned about their students' lack of motivation in writing classes. It is recommended that lecturers identify their students' English learning motivation at the beginning of the semester. By doing so, adjustments to the teaching design and materials can then be made in order to fulfil the students' needs, and to improve and to implement motivational strategies that are needed in the learning process. Consequently, it is suggested that writing modules in higher education in Indonesia should be conducted in smaller classes. In this way, each student will have an opportunity to receive adequate feedback and attention from the lecturers. Moreover, the lecturers will be able to provide motivating feedback and be engaged with their students.

The classroom learning motivation should be designed to enable cooperation and collaboration between students with both high motivation and lower motivation to help each other in their learning process. Meanwhile, lecturers should be made aware that technology is merely a medium to assist students in their learning, and that they, the lecturers are the main source of the learning process.

The second implication from this study relates to future research. This study has attempted to investigate motivational issues based on Gardner's model (Gardner, 2007b). However, it was not designed to follow the model, as the teaching was not designed by the researcher. This study was therefore adjusted to a pure observation of the on-going classes. I strongly suggest future research to investigate the effectiveness of Gardner's model which embraces all of its elements.

This study concludes that the framework that Willis introduced needs revisiting for the teaching and learning of writing skills in a technology-mediated context, especially for a low language proficiency and low-technology context.

As in the local context, a topic of the learning was ideally completed within one meeting, a new teaching design that fits the TBLT framework is now needed. Considerable diplomacy will be required, and adequate time set aside to ensure a successful introduction. This finding arises from one of the drawbacks of this study, namely, that of time constraints. Observing the learning for a semester will provide a further advantage to future research. It is recommended that when future studies focus on how students acquire vocabulary, Edmodo is not used. For more complex learning, such as writing skills, the use of Edmodo is recommended for the duration of the task completion to contribute to more effective learning.

6.6 Limitations

Three limitations are identified. The most significant refers to the nature of the data. This study was designed for a specific local context in Indonesia and since every classroom is unique, the results of the study are not generalisable although there are replicable elements of value to practitioners and researchers, such as the online questionnaire. This study did not measure the success of the technology-mediated TBL approach in improving motivation and language proficiency. In this context, it was hard to measure many variables in the study. In addition, if this is investigated in the future, each type of motivation should be investigated in separate studies. For example, one

should only measure the effect of technology-mediated TBL on one type of motivation level only in order to obtain a thorough understanding of how motivation correlated with the use of TBLT and technology. While the study's results are not generalizable, they do provide insights into the specific local context that will be of value to practitioners and researchers.

This contributes to the second limitation. Since the main study of the project had to been adjusted to meet the local situation at the target institution based on the restraints of the field site, it changed to a purely observation-based study focusing on the implementation of the TBL approach mixed with the utilisation of internet technology. It is hoped that future studies will seek to build on this approach by measuring learners' learning gains over time.

Other issue needs addressing in the future research is the effect of the lecturers' way of leading the class. As this current study limits it context only on students, the lecturers' elements were not being examined. Therefore, it is important for the future research to include this variables into the points of observations.

The final limitation is the time constraint that was necessarily imposed on the research. In order to measure the success of technology-mediated TBL, a longitudinal study is required. As Regina reported in FGD 1, the use of PCs and Edmodo eased her learning in terms of giving her access to transfer the vocabulary from the sources to her writing. The processing time was doubled in non-PC-based classes. It affected the total duration for the writing task completion process as it is a complex process that requires cognitive and affective processing. A longer process of learning is required. Therefore, a research design is required that is more longitudinal in nature in order to more fully understand the depth of activities. While this study has not explored learning in detail (e.g., it has not listed the vocabulary that the learners acquired through 'incidental learning'), such a longitudinal study would seek to address these and similar aspects of the learning process in more detail.

6.7 Concluding remarks

This study has investigated the relationship between language learning motivation and the use of technology-mediated TBL in English writing classes in a vocational education context in Indonesia. It is one of the first, if not the first to attempt this, and it has done so by exploring 'live' classrooms rather than through an experimental

approach. The findings suggested that there was a reciprocal relationship between motivational levels and the experience in learning English writing skills in technology-mediated TBL classes. However, caution is required in that the use of internet technology cannot replace the function of the lecturers in motivating the students in the process of learning English writing skills. The responses from the lecturers during each of the task cycles influenced the students both positively and negatively and in substantive ways. Even though the students completed their tasks independently, the lecturers' reaction during the feedback session had a strong influence on the learners' classroom learning motivation.

The last finding indicated that students utilised various strategies to complete their writing tasks. However, in general, the students were unable to be independent learners. They followed the task-cycles accordingly, as instructed. Therefore, arising from these findings, lecturers should implement a combination of strategies to create a motivating classroom learning situation.

In order to better exploit the use of technology-mediated TBL in motivating students to learn English writing skills, some issues and lessons, which have been learnt, have been pointed out in this chapter. It is expected that these research findings, and the lessons learnt from this study, will be helpful to other EFL practitioners and researchers who want to investigate further issues related to these three themes of language learner motivation, technology-mediated TBL approaches, and teaching writing skills in the Indonesian and broader Asian context.

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APPENDIX 1: UCLan ethical approval

uclan
University of Central Lancashire

18th May 2015

Michael Thomas/Baetty Baetty
School of Language, Literature and International Studies
University of Central Lancashire

Dear Michael/Baetty,

Re: BAHSS Ethics Committee Application
Unique Reference Number: BAHSS 256

The BAHSS ethics committee has granted approval of your proposal application 'An investigation of technology-mediated learning to develop students' motivation: A case study of English for broadcasting at a vocational Higher Education Institution in Indonesia'. Approval is granted up to the end of project date* or for 5 years from the date of this letter, whichever is the longer.

It is your responsibility to ensure that

- the project is carried out in line with the information provided in the forms you have submitted
- you regularly re-consider the ethical issues that may be raised in generating and analysing your data
- any proposed amendments/changes to the project are raised with, and approved, by Committee
- you notify roffice@uclan.ac.uk if the end date changes or the project does not start
- serious adverse events that occur from the project are reported to Committee
- a closure report is submitted to complete the ethics governance procedures (Existing paperwork can be used for this purposes e.g. funder's end of grant report; abstract for student award or NRES final report. If none of these are available use e-Ethics Closure Report Proforma).

Yours sincerely

Megan Knight
Vice Chair
BAHSS Ethics Committee

University of Central Lancashire

CONSENT FORM

Title of the Research Project	:	An investigation of technology-mediated learning to develop students' motivation: A Case Study of English for Broadcasting at a vocational Higher Education Institution in Indonesia'
Name of the researcher	:	Baetty
Position	:	PhD student at University of Central Lancashire
Mobile Number	:	+447802763014 / +628116610681
E-mail	:	bbaetty@uclan.ac.uk
Director of Studies	:	Dr Michael Thomas (Tel.: +44 1772 893148 / E-mail: MThomas4@uclan.ac.uk).

Please read the following statements and initial the boxes to indicate your agreement to participate in this research study conducted by the above named researcher.

Please tick the box

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet, dated 06 October 2016 for the above study and have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. ☑

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason. ☑

I agree to take part in the study by: ☑
- Responding to questionnaire
- Participating in a Focus Group Discussion
- Allowing the researcher to attend my classes and observe my learning ☑
- Being recorded on pictures , videos, and audio

I agree that my data gathered in this study may be stored (after it has been anonymised) in a special data centre and may be used for future research.

I understand that it will not be possible to withdraw my data from the study after final analysis has been undertaken. ☑

I agree to the use of anonymised/pseudonymised quotes in publications. ☑

Widya Marchellina	6 Oktober 2016	Jüyk
Name of Participant	Date	Signature
Baetty	4 October 2016	
Name of Researcher	Date	Signature

University of Central Lancashire

LEMBAR PERSETUJUAN

Judul Program penelitian	:	Sebuah kajian terhadap pengajaran dengan media teknologi untuk meningkatkan motivasi belajar mahasiswa: Sebuah studi kasus pada Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris untuk penyiaran pada perguruan tinggi vokasi di Indonesia
Nama peneliti	:	Baetty
Posisi	:	PhD student at University of Central Lancashire
No HP	:	+447802763014 / +628116610681
E-mail	:	bbaetty@uclan.ac.uk
Pembimbing utama	:	Dr Michael Thomas (Tel.: +44 1772 893148 / E-mail: MThomas4@uclan.ac.uk).

Mohon baca pernyataan berikut dan beri tanda pada kotak yang tersedia untuk menyatakan Anda setuju untuk berpartisipasi pada penelitian yang dilaksanakan oleh peneliti yang tertera di atas.

Mohon contreng

Saya menyatakan bahwa saya telah membaca dan paham mengenai informasi pada lembaran informasi, tertanggal 06 Oktober 2016 untuk penelitian di atas dan sudah menimbang perihal informasi tersebut, bertanya dan sudah mendapatkan jawaban yang memuaskan. ☑

Saya paham bahwa keikutsertaan saya bersifat sukarela dan saya bebas untuk menarik diri dari keikutsertaan ini kapanpun, tanpa memberikan alasan tertentu. ☑

Saya setuju untuk berpartisipasi dalam penelitian dengan cara: ☑
- Merespon kuisionaire
- Berpartisipasi dalam Focus Group Discussion (Diskusi Kelompok)
- Mengizinkan peneliti untuk menghadiri kelas saya dan mengamati pembelajaran
- didokumentasikan dalam bentuk rekaman gambar bergerak, foto, dan rekaman suara

Saya setuju bahwa hasil dari penelitian ini akan disimpan (setelah dianonimkan) dalam pusat penyimpanan data tersendiri dan mungkin akan digunakan untuk penelitian berikutnya. ☑

Saya paham bahwa saya tidak bisa menyatakan mengundurkan diri dari keikutsertaan setelah data selesai dianalisa. ☑

Saya setuju dengan penggunaan kutipan data anonim/pseudonim dalam publikasi ilmiah ☑

Widya Marchellina	6 oktober	Jüyk
Nama Partisipan	Tanggal	Tanda tangan
Baetty	4 oktober 2016	
Nama Peneliti	Tanggal	Tanda tangan

APPENDIX 3: Online questionnaire (Students)

Objective

This questionnaire is aimed at investigating your responses on language learning motivation, attitude and opinion about the use of technology in learning English writing skills through task-based learning.

Directions

You are required to answer the following questions related to the use of technology in learning English writing in Padang State Polytechnics. It is not an examination, there is no "right" or "wrong" answer. Your own opinion is highly appreciated. Thank you.

Motivation to learn English in Vocational Institution

1. My willingness to learn English is

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

Very Low Very High

2. My main reason for choosing the English Department in this vocational institution is (Choose one that match your reason)

To be able to communicate well in English	☐
To get a good job	☐
To be obedient to parents by following their aspiration	☐
To ease getting enrolled in the higher education institution	☐
No other options	☐

3. On the national vocational institution entry examination, this English Department at Padang State Polytechnic was my choice on (Choose one that match your choice)

The first option ☐ The second option ☐ The third/last option ☐

Motivation and Writing Task Performance

The responses are: 1. Completely Disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Rather Disagree, 4. Rather Agree, 5. Agree, and 6. Completely Agree

4. My motivation has positive effect on my willingness to do the writing tasks.

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

Completely Disagree Completely Agree

5. Working on the English writing tasks motivates me to improve my English writing skills.

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

Completely Disagree Completely Agree

6. The use of technology in completing the writing tasks makes the learning of English writing more interesting

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6
Completely Disagree Completely Agree

Reasons for Getting Motivated and Demotivated

7. The main reason of me getting motivated in learning English, especially in English writing classes at Padang State Polytechnic nowadays is because of

My classmate's learning enthusiasm ☐
Family conditions ☐
The use of technology contributes to a more interesting learning ☐
The lecturer's character ☐
Other unknows factors ☐

8. The main reason of me losing my motivation / getting demotivated in learning English, especially in English writing classes at Padang State Polytechnic nowadays is because of

My classmate's learning enthusiasm ☐
Family conditions ☐
The use of technology contributes to a more interesting learning ☐
The lecturer's character ☐
Other unknows factors ☐

9. The main reason of me losing my motivation / getting demotivated in learning English, especially in English writing classes at Padang State Polytechnic nowadays is because of

Self-encouragement for acquiring the English writing proficiency ☐
The effect of technology-based activity-based activities implemented by lecturers in the class ☐
The effect of the task-based learning ☐
Writing task instructed by their lecturers through the use of technology ☐
Knowing the objective of tasks contributes to building up my motivation to do the tasks ☐

Technology-Mediated Task-Bases ESP

The responses are: 1. Completely Disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Rather Disagree, 4. Rather Agree, 5. Agree, and 6. Completely Agree

10. I am used to copy and paste all the English materials from online resources that I found from browsing.

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6
Completely Correct Completely Incorrect

11. For completing the writing tasks, I usually … (Choose only one option).

Take advantages of the Google Translate by typing as many words as possible to complete the task quickly ☐
Start writing by writing down points to be explored in the writing ☐

Start writing and do editing by reading and revising the writing ☐
Wait until the due date is approaching then start to seek for classmates' tasks to get inspiration from ☐
Look for information from English websites and quote them on my own Writing ☐

12. The tools that I frequently use for finding the right terms and vocabularies that helps me to complete my English writing tasks is

Online applications on my smartphone ☐
Google translate on my smartphones and PC ☐
Conventional printed dictionaries ☐
Offline dictionary software on PCs ☐
Taking advantages by asking from classmates, lecturers, or other people ☐
Peer-feedback through online media helped me a lot in improving the quality of my writing ☐
Online websites are my references before starting to write ☐

Technology-Utilisation and Its Effects

The responses are: 1. Completely Disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Rather Disagree, 4. Rather Agree, 5. Agree, and 6. Completely Agree

13. When I am not allowed to use technology for completing my English writing tasks, I become less interested in completing the tasks.

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6
Completely Disagree Completely Agree

14. The use of technology in the learning of English writing ca be replaced by the use of pens, pencils, paper, and printed dictionaries … (Choose only one option).

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6
Completely Correct Completely Incorrect

15. I think the effect of technology utilization in the learning of English writing ….

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. Class ……...……..
2. Age ……..……..……..
3. Sex
   Male ☐ Female ☐

4. Email Address Sex ……..……..……

5. Have you sit in for an English Proficiency test (TOEIC/TOEFL)?
   Yes ☐ No (Continue to No 9) ☐
6. When was the last time you took the test?

   1 - 3 Months ago ☐
   4 - 6 Months ago ☐
   7- 9 Months ago ☐
   10 - 12 Months ago ☐
   More than a year ago ☐

7. What is your recent English Proficiency test?

   TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) ☐
   TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) ☐

8. What is your recent English Proficiency test? ----------

LANGUAGE (It is a summary of your language background)

9. The daily language for the communication within your family is
   Minangkabau Language ☐
   Javanese Language ☐
   Sundanese Language ☐
   Bataknese Language ☐
   Betawi Language ☐
   Malay Language (Jambi) ☐
   Malay Language (Riau) ☐
   Malay Language ☐
   Kalimantan Language ☐
   Other Local Language ☐

10. Where were you born? ----------
11. Which city that you consider as your hometown? ----------
12. How old were you when you first learnt English? ----------
13. Was English as a compulsory subject in your primary school (Age 6-13)
    Yes ☐ No ☐

14. Was English a compulsory module when you were at senior high schools?
    Yes ☐ No ☐

15. Was English a compulsory subject in a university entry test?
    Yes ☐ No ☐

16. Is English a compulsory subject for passing the degree at the university level?
    Yes ☐ No ☐

17. Where did you learn English previously? ----------

18. When did you learn English previously? ----------

19. How long have you learned English prior to studying in the English Department?
    ----

20. If you took English module as an extracurricular during the school time, which English skill was the priority?

Speaking	☐
Listening	☐
Writing	☐
Reading	☐
Integrated Skills: Listening & Speaking	☐
Integrated Skills: Listening & Writing	☐
Integrated Skills: Reading & Speaking	☐
Integrated Skills: Reading & Writing	☐
Other Please mention it)	☐

……..

21. How will you use English after graduating from this Padang State Polytechnic? (Please choose how will you use it in the future)

For traveling and holiday	☐
I want to actively use English in my work place	☐
I want to continue my study in Indonesia or abroad	☐
Others (Please mention it)	☐

……..

22. Why did you learn English? What was your reason to learn English? (You can give unlimited reasons)

My reasons to learn English….

23. The level of English speaking fluency that I want to reach in 10 years is

Basic	☐	Low Intermediate	☐
Intermediate	☐	Advanced	☐
Professionally Proficient	☐		

24. The level of English writing fluency that I want to reach in 10 years is

Basic	☐	Low Intermediate	☐
Intermediate	☐	Advanced	☐
Professionally Proficient	☐		

25. The level of English listening fluency that I want to reach in 10 years is

Basic	☐	Low Intermediate	☐
Intermediate	☐	Advanced	☐
Professionally Proficient	☐		

26. The level of English reading fluency that I want to reach in 10 years is

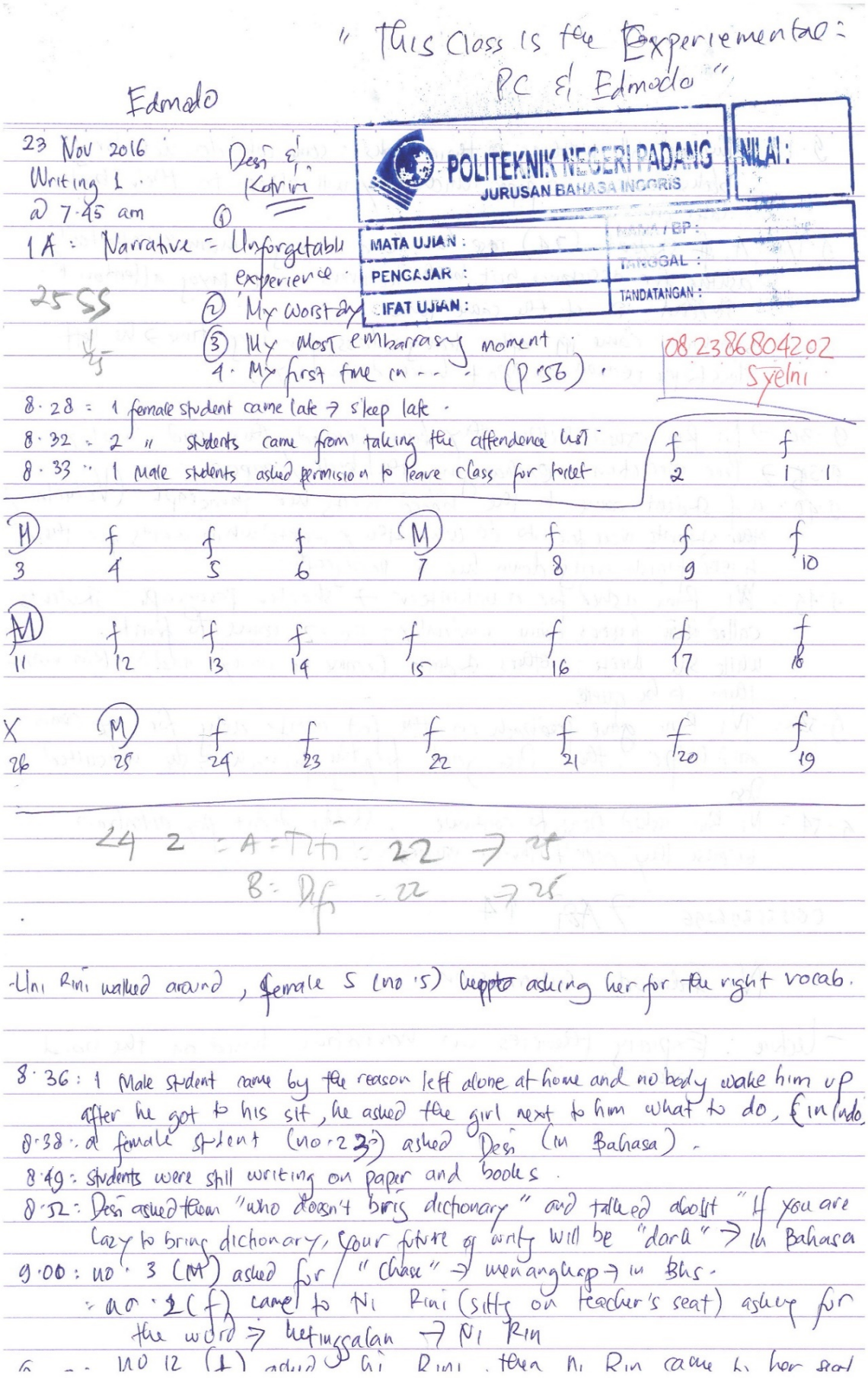
Basic	☐	Low Intermediate	☐
Intermediate	☐	Advanced	☐
Professionally Proficient	☐		

27. Are you willing to participate in further discussion?

Yes ☐ No ☐

28. Please mention the language that you are proficiencies with (Please list them based on the level of mastery)

APPENDIX 4: Classroom observation notes



" This class is the Experimental : PC & Edmodo "

Edmodo

23 Nov 2016
Writing 1
@ 7.45 am

Desi & Katrini

POLITEKNIK NEGERI PADANG
JURUSAN BAHASA INGGRIS
NILAI:
MATA UJIAN :
PENGAJAR :
IFAT UJIAN :
NAMA / BP :
TANGGAL :
TANDATANGAN :

1A : Narrative = Unforgetable experience.

2555

(1)
(2) My worst day
(3) My most embarrasy moment
4. My first time in ... (P 56).

08 23 86 80 42 02
Syelni

8.28 : 1 female student came late → sleep late.
8.32 : 2 " students came from taking the attendence list.
8.33 : 1 male students asked permision to leave class for toilet

f	f	f
2	1	1

(M)	f	f	f	(M)	f	f	f
3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
(M)	f	f	f	f	f	f	f
11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
X	(M)	f	f	f	f	f	f
26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19

24 2 : A : Tft : 22 → 25
B : Df : 22 → 25

-Uni Rini walked around, female 5 (no 5) keeppp asking her for the right vocab.

8.36 : 1 Male student came by the reason left alone at home and no body wake him up after he got to his sit, he asked the girl next to him what to do, (in Indo)
8.38 : a female student (no. 23) asked Desi (in Bahasa).
8.49 : students were still writing on paper and books.
8.52 : Desi asked them "who doesn't bring dictionary" and talked about "If you are lazy to bring dictionary, your future of writing will be "dara" → in Bahasa
9.00 : no. 3 (M) asked for / "Chase" → mengangap → in Bhs.
: no. 1 (f) came to Ni Rini (sitting on teacher's seat) asking for the word → ketinggalan → Ni Rin
6 ... no 12 (f) asked Ni Rini, then Ni Rin came to her seat

9.13 : They are still writing on their books ; some who do not bring books wrote on a paper which they will attach to their books later on

9.17 : A ~~of~~ student (24) rose her hand saying "mam" repeatedly asking for assistance but both lecturers were paying attention to student 2 at the same time.

9.27 : Syauhada came in after heavy class for long time → he left class by the reason he don't have dictionary ;

9.30 → Ni Rin asked whether they have finished ; they said "not yet"

9.35 7. Peer correction - exchanging the book / paper

9.40 : a f student came to the board writes her paragraph (Voluntarily) other students were free to do what they wanted while waits for their friend finish writing down her 5 paragraph.

9.45 : Ni Rin asked for a volunteer → shorter paragraph ; Students called their friends name randomly ; no.2 came in front. While she wrote ; others students became so noisy and Ni Rin remind them to be quiet

9.53 : Ni Rin gave feedback on the first word asky for my comment and helps' ; then Desi point for the feedback ; she consulted Desi

9.54 : Ni Rin asked Desi to continue ; Student didn't pay attention because they didn't involve students yet.

0815 3539 6296 → Ari 14

No Edmodo submission.

- lecture : Explain theories on narrative based on the hand book.

Control Group: No Edmodo nor FC || Chairman: Alif 11.00 – 1.30 Lab MM

23 Nov 16 I B. Writg 2 : Narrative

? Desi & Mutella EL.

26 SS ~~7~~ 27 Total

f. 27 | -f 2 | f 1

f	f	-M	M	X	M	f	M
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	M	=	M	f	f	f	f
1	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
f	M	-f	-f	f	f	f	f
26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19

11.01 → 18 SS. (- → came at 11.05).

11.06 → Tia starts by asking them to turn off the PC & into on she asked students volunteering to read and explain in English

11.15 → 2 girls came late. (=). from the handbook displayed on the screen;

First volunteer was a male, 2nd = female they read then translate ; then Tia explained // students were excited to volunteer; 5 SS raise their hands to volunteer.

11.16 → she asked another SS ; points at other side, a male student volunteer

11.19 → another f student read, class became a bit disturb because one of the student made fun of her & the teacher got involved to (a0.20).

11.28 : they opened Dictionaries at once by instruction from Tia.

11.30 : another f student volunteered to read (a0.19).

~~Some~~ 15 SS read from the screen

5 // from book

2 SS are busy with her phone

3 SS didn't really pay attention to book nor screen hold the book on their hands but can follow.

1 don't pay attention at all

11.35 → the girl on no.2 → still busy with her phone, the no 3 joining her

11.40 → finally she put her phone into her bag on the table

11.41 → another diff girl read the example aloud from her own book while others checking from the screen.

11.47 → 4 SS rose hands asky for a turn to read, Tia pointed the girl no. 1, other ss complaint that she has not got any turn and Tia responded by simply saying "next turn" nicely.
When she translate the readg; other ss allowed translatg allowd especally no(12) a male. I can hear many
11.49 → Tia "yg lain, dgngar aja Febinya dulu";
this class is more expeited to learn compared to the previous class
examples → 2 not indonesian context ("A once ~~Day~~ a lifetime experience
"~~My~~ Peddling on my own") 1 from Indonesian "New Year 2007 in Bogor"
11.50 → "any questions about narativa?" → No, she continued.
11.52 → Tia guided ss with indirect sentences
11.55 → Tia instructed them to practice writg their paragraph by choosy one of the topics (out of 4). → post test.
12.10 → ~~4~~ Students switched on the PC and used them for dichonary function; and also youtube.
12.12 → 5 students used PC; 2 of them used website that consists of paragraph → narrative and busy writg after that others used dichonary on the PC.
" free dichonary → they swap back to google translate sederet.
Desi ∈ teknologi membantu, tetapi anhsw "short cut".
Printed dichonary are not applicable, students tend to use the digital one on phone or PC!
→

12.27: SS are still working individually to construct their paragraph
12.28: no 28 (Male) asked Desi "Mam, Mam, I wanna asked somethg, Desi came approacg hm
12.34: no.6 → Willi kept on accessg website containg loads of words and text then he wrote on his book a lot of lines of words, finished earlier then busy googlg & readg about soccer. in this class, they not suppose to usa edmodo & PC.
12.37: Tia reminded Willy to stop readg from the PC and to usa his dichonary.
38: Febri and 2 other girls, 1 boy were excited to approach Desi & Tia askeg for feedback for their writg
a girl & a boy queue for Tia at the back Bintang Obor
Febri → Desi at the front

I B Putra Winda Rahmad
08228485300

23 Nov 2016 Writing

POLITEKNIK NEGERI PADANG
JURUSAN BAHASA INGGRIS

MATA UJIAN :	NIM / EP :
PENGAJAR :	TANGGAL :
SIFAT UJIAN :	TANDATANGAN :

NILAI :

12.40 : another girl to Tia,
41 → Ally come to Desi
he was mostly asleep
and didn't follow the activities

1 : the girl no.2 → again busy w/ her phone without finishg her writg yet.

12.44 : This class is more excited for getting feedback on their writgs (from lecturers).
For the lazy one, she remains lazy, layg down her head on the table and use her phone, febri is next to her is very diligent; didn't really influence these 2 girls.
- others helped their peers (readg & discussg),

Mostly they finished at 12.40 then started the feedback seeking, either from lecturers or from friends.

12.55 → 5 girls never moved from their seat, not but are tryg to complete their writg; only 1 (no.2) who doesn't put effort to complete her writg task.

1 pm → Desi & Tia never paid attention to the an active girls, especially no.2

11.06 → feedback is still taking place.

11.12 → I asked febri, about the no.2 → Defa → she has got ulcer on her mouth so she doesn't feel well.

This girl no.2 is waitg for her turn to get feedback, but I never really saw her writg; the girl no 27 was more concern on her writg most of the time but she was the last person who completed her writg → she used google translate for sentences, not words most of the time.

APPENDIX 5: Classroom observation summary

	Observation 1			**Observation 2**			**Observation 3**		
	Learners' Motivated Behaviour			Learners' Motivated Behaviour			Learners' Motivated Behaviour		
Task Cycle	Attention	Participation	Volunteering	Attention	Participation	Volunteering	Attention	Participation	Volunteering
Class 1A		12/10/2016			23/11/2016			30/11/2016	
Pre	√	√	x	√	√	√	x	x	x
Task Cycle	-	-	x	√	√	√	+	+	+
Language Focus	√	√	√	-	√	+			
Class 1B		12/10/2016			23/11/2016			30/11/2016	
Pre	√	+	√	-	+	+	x	x	x
Task Cycle	√	√	√	√	√	√	-	√	√
Language Focus	√	√	√	x	x	x	+	+	+
Class 2A		05/10/2016 (W5)			30/11/2016			01/12/2016	
Pre		No Pre-Task		√	√	√			
Task Cycle		No Main Task		√	√	-	-	-	-
Language Focus	√	+	√						

	Observation 1			**Observation 2**			**Observation 3**		
	Learners' Motivated Behaviour			Learners' Motivated Behaviour			Learners' Motivated Behaviour		
Task Cycle	Attention	Participation	Volunteering	Attention	Participation	Volunteering	Attention	Participation	Volunteering
Class 2B		05/10/2016			30/11/2016			01/12/2016	
Pre	-	√	-				√	√	√
Task Cycle	√	√	x		Mid-semester test		√	√	√
Language Focus	√	+	√				x	x	x
Class 3A		19/10/2016							
Pre									
Task Cycle		Irrelevant task sequence							
Language Focus									
Class 3B		19/10/2016							
Pre									
Task Cycle		Irrelevant task sequence							
Language Focus									

Notes:

No Cycle conducted	x	More intense	'+
Observed Situation	√	Less intense	-

APPENDIX 6: Transcript 1 (Focus Group Discussion)

<u>Focus Group Discussion 3:</u> (Class 2B)

Padang, 1 December 2017 at 1 PM
Interviewer : Baetty
Participants (Pseudonym)

1. Laksmi Endriani
2. Jeni Deswita
3. Marisa Indah
4. Reni Sulastri
5. Herlina Herlambang
6. Joni Putra

Baetty: Today is 1st of December and you are the first from your class, 1st of December 2016. This's 08.30 AM in the morning. I am with Jeni opss.. sorry with Laksmi Endriani, Jeni Deswita, Marisa Indah, Reni and Joni, Joni Putra not Jeni Putri. OK? Thank you guys!
Joni and Jeni, that's very good combination in your class. You have Joni and Jeni. These twins, twins in Polytechnic! So, first of all the as the result shown from the questionnaires that you fill in in three classes, five classes actually have answered that questionnaires, and most students said that the their motivation in English are high, do you think that your motivation is high? Don't worry, it is not about the right or wrong answers. It is not about the correct or false answers. It is about your feeling, It is about what you think, about you have, you are so, feel free to say anyone you want to say, any does not have anything to do with your score for the writing class or any class no… so, don't worry (Students are giggling)

Motivation

Baetty: But yeah... I hope it's just a nice time with us together. So, anybody who want to tell me about motivation? About your motivation to learning English?
Laksmi: Yes
Baetty: OK. Laksmi?
Laksmi: Yes
Baetty: Tell me, Mi!
Laksmi: OK, Actually, my motivation in English, learn English, speak in English or anything about English is I want to be the good English in speak or writing or reading and pronounce. Because I know that English is a not universal anymore but it's a must. We have to speak English. We have known about English, because a… If we can speak English, we can connect with another people in the world yeah… As you see that wherever a… I go, I will tell everyone that have to speak English and I have too. And yeah my motivation also beside that, my motivation to a… can speak English or anything about English is I hope to be reporter. I hope to be best novelist because I love writing. I love, so love writing so much and I hope to be the best novelist in English. And after that yeah…as like I say a.. yeah.. English is not universal anymore but English is a must. I have to speak English. I have to can be speak English because you can connect with another people in the world with English. Just like that.

Baetty: So , it is about your own desire? OK, thank you very much Laksmi! Who will be the next? Come on, the sooner that quicker and you will be free from me. (Students are laughing). SO? Who will be the next or I call you? Herlina? Yeah she already. Thank you, came on!

Herlina: Aaa..my motivation in English?

Baetty: Ya

Herlina: Hmm…(giggling) I think I want to be good in English. I want to be good in speaking, good in writing, good in everything about English and because I think English is very important in this world because we can connected other people. We can a… go we can go everywhere which use English. And a… I want to be an interpreter so that why I want to speak well in English. I want to know more about English and a… a… yeah…Because English is very important. Everyone in the world should know English. So, everywhere we go, English is important in our live. That's all.

Baetty: So, it from yourself, you want to be good in English

Herlina: Yes

Baetty: OK. Thank you very much, Herlina. Joni, ready?

Joni: Yang lain aja dulu, Miss. (He was requesting to let others talk first)

Baetty: He is the gentlemen, ladies first!

Unidentified Girls' voice: Ooo .. Ladies fist! (Giggling)

Baetty: So, who will be the next? If it's not Johan, should it be Jeni? Are you ready Jeni?

Laksmi: Off Course

Jeni: No, no, Marisa!

Laksmi: Or Reni?

An Unidentified Girl' Voice: To be the famous model!

Baetty: .. English is one way to get, to be a famous model? Do you want be a model?

Reni: No (giggling)

Baetty: And why she's saying yes?

Reni: She is laying!

Baetty: Go on Reni! She is an English student (trying to motivate her to talk) Go on, Reni!

Reni: OK. My motivation to be good in English is because I love every song in English, so, I need, so, I want to understand what is that song that I like. And I want to connect every people in the world with Facebook or Instagram, so, I can understand what are they say in the, in they, in their post. And I think with English I can… I can see the world. In internet. So I can understand what is they say. And I think in my future I want to be a… translator or interpreter because I think it is good job a… a.. and it's aaa…and the…. So I learn English just to, just to… just to… I learn English, just I just want to understand what what people in the world say.

Baetty: So, you.. the first one you want I understand that what people say.

Reni: Yes

Baetty: And next to get the job?

Reni: Yes

Baetty: Thank you Reni, Marisa? Yes, she is ready. Go on!

Marisa: My motivation in English, a... I think English is very important in this era, a... Many people should be speak English. In my motivation because I want I have a dream to.. I have a dream to travelling in this in many countries. And I have dream to travelling in many countries and I must to understand what they say to me. So, I chose English, because know, I don't..in my high school I not a… I

don't have a… skill to English. So, I…I want to, I want to be best good English in Polytechnic a… because a… I want to be a Journalist or translation.

All students: Translator (giggling)

Marisa: Translator

Baetty: But most of all, you want to be good in English?

Marisa: Yes

Baetty: OK. Thank you very much. So, who will be the next? The twin?? The Joni or the Jeni?

Reni: Jeni:

Students: Ladies first! (they are laughing)

Baetty: Again? It's an honor, Jeni!

Jeni: My motivation to learn English is because my teacher in high Scholl. My teacher very nice to me and she.. she always said you must know about the English because in English is universal. And we... we… we can understand. Or if we go anywhere, wherever it, we go Arab or other countries, we can know what the people said. Because English is universal. English is learnt by all of people in the world. And my other motivation is learning English in polytechnic because I want to be interpreter in future and I want to travel around the world and stay over there.

Baetty: First, it was because of your teacher

Jeni: My teacher

Baetty: And second you want travel the world. Thank you, Jeni! Now, Joni cannot say no anymore. His turn now.

Joni: My motivation… a… my motivation learn English is a… actually I don't know about English. I don't know about English but I very like English. In my senior high Scholl, my teacher always encourage me to learn English. But, I don't know (laughing) I don't like it. So, when I graduate in senior high school, from senior high school, I chose English Department at State Polytechnic of Padang.

Baetty: Which choice, first chose second or third?

Joni: Third

Baetty: Third choice? OK! (Other students are laughing)

Joni: So a… I chose English department at State Polytechnic Negeri Padang. So I joint and now I study at state polytechnic. So my motivation to learn English is I want to be good English and I want be a reporter and producer.

Baetty: OK. So, even though this is your third choice, you still motivated to learning English. But you hate English before.

Joni: Yes

Baetty: You don't like it. Now what do you feel?

Joni: (Giggling in shy) As a…I mencoba untuk suka aja, Miss (Try to like it)

Baetty: You are still trying to be, to like it?

Joni: Trying (giggling)

Baetty: OK! Not bad!

Laksmi: May be coba, Misss? (she wants to add)

Baetty: Sure, why not? Go on!

Laksmi: Actually, a… my Motivation in English also because the word "The End". How come? How come "The End" can be one word in Bahasa? It make it makes me a.. feel I have to be.. I have to know about English. It's about a…it's about ..when when, I was six yeah.. when I was six, I watching cartoon and then.. I saw there the word "The End" and I think how come "The End" can be one word in Bahasa. And that's why I have to. And I should, must to speak English and to know about English just like that.

Baetty: OK. So, the first you cannot accept why" The End" two words becoming Tamat, 1 word.
Laksmi: Yeah
Baetty: OK, So at what age are you at the time?
Laksmi: Yeah
Baetty: At what age are you at the time? Age?
Laksmi: Eight
Baetty: Eight years? OK. Have you ever thought of something like that?
Students: No

Technology
Baetty: No? OK! That's fine. OK. The next thing we are going to talk is about "technology". Do you consider that in English classes, in English Department, your lectures or your learning activities always using technology?
Laksmi: Yes
Baetty: Yes? Like what kind of technology with that? Internet
Laksmi: Internet, computer
Baetty: Computer and internet ?
Laksmi: O…
Laksmi and Joni: Smart Phone
Baetty: Smart Phone, projector?
Laksmi: Yes, Projector!
Jeni: Speaker
Baetty: Yap? Speaker, OK. Joni said something before..
Joni: No
Baetty: You said "camera"?
Joni: Yes, Miss
Baetty: Do you think this technology is useful for your learning?
Laksmi: A... yes
Baetty: Can you tell me about that?
Laksmi: For our translation, we use the internet, we know about the topic, to add the similarity or the word maybe, or.. It's very useful for translation
Baetty: For translation? OK. Thank you. Now, let's focus on the writing class. What do you think about this technology being using in the class, is it useful for you, same like translation? In what way is it helpful? Joni?
Joni: Ehmm… it can help us to find another source to get references
Baetty: So, looking for references?
Joni: Yes
Other Unidentified female respondent: Yes
Baetty: For the thing that you are going to type, that you are going to write is very important. So if you use no technology on pen and pencil and it's harder to write. Is it?
Laksmi: We got no idea
Baetty: So, you got no idea
Laksmi: We not enough knowledge about that
Baetty: Ok, Jeni? What?) (students are laughing) What happened, Jeni? (students are laughing)
Jeni: No
Baetty: I have to wake her up. See! See, Miss! sleeping. (students are laughing) Not like usual.

Jeni: I think technology is useful for us when we writing because technology a… in the internet, we have thesaurus and other dictionary that can provide us to complete our writing.
Baetty: So, basically, technology and the internet is useful for looking for words?
Jeni: Free dictionary
Other students: Dictionary!
Baetty: Dictionary, sources
Jeni: Similarities
Baetty: Similarities of the words? What about use Edmodo? Do you think it is helpful for your learning writing task?
Some Unidentified students' Voice: Yes
Baetty: In what way Edmodo is helpful?
Jeni: Because we can connect with lectures in Edmodo and can lecture can give us task about what what we have to writing
Baetty: Marisa, do you want says something?
Marisa: Ehmm… I think a… internet too a… is very important to writing because a… we must to a… change a target language and a… to get easier to… to…write
Baetty: OK. So, the technologies make it easy
Marisa: Yes
Baetty: To type to write something. In terms of typing or in terms of the content that you are going to write?
Marisa: The content
Baetty: OK. Internet helps you.
Marisa: Yes
Baetty: Like what Joni and Herlina said. It's helpful for searching for information. Reni, do you want to say something?
Reni: I think Edmodo is helpful for us because is easy to make our task and we do not paper and pen again. We just... we just type our task and then sent it, and then our task is done. I think is more simple then we write down our task in the paper and then keep in my bag. I think Edmodo it is more simple.
Baetty: Edmodo is simpler?
Reni: Yes
Baetty: OK, Thank you. Herlina?
Herlina: Yes. Like Reni said that Edmodo is simpler than you write down the task and because Edmodo we can make our task everywhere, not just in our campus. Everywhere, we can submit it everywhere too. So yeah, every time until the due date.
Baetty: OK. What about in the class? Is Edmodo helpful when you are in the class with the lecture?
Herlina: Also! Yes! Lectures so give our, give us the taskS in the class and it should be collect in in Edmodo.
Baetty: So, that it's also helpful for class activity?
Herlina: It's easier
Baetty: Easier? OK. Thank you, Herlina. Laksmi? Your turn, do you think that Edmodo is helpful for you for writing class?
Laksmi: Yeah, of course. Like Reni said, my friend say that Edmodo so helpful, yeah ehm… more simple and the yeah like that we can submit our task without keep on my bag and we can submit it where you are and then yap... more, more easer just like that
Baetty: So, learning writing trough use Edmodo is helpful for you to improve your English, to improve your writing in English?
Laksmi: Yeah

Baetty: OK, thank you very much, my next question is do you think that using technology in your writing classes improve your friends motivation. Joniin these case he doesn't like English in the beginning. Do you think he did improve his motivation when you know that your teacher, your lectures are use the technology for your learning how is it, Joni? What do you feel when you know that there is technology, there is Edmodo in the class?

Joni: Yap… ehm…baa caro mamulainyo (How should I start).

Baetty: Try it first in Bahasa, before you are not motivated to learn English and then now you are an English Department, and then in the English the lectures use technology, one of it is in writing class that use Edmodo what do you feel about that?

Joni: Yeah… when I see the lecture of English Department use technology maybe I …I… mulai apo? (start to?)

Baetty: Start

Joni: Start to know about English and I want to learn and learn English more and I want to understand about English

Baetty: OK, is it because did you see the Edmodo that look nice, is easy for you to do something in there and then you want to post something in English there, is it because of that?

Joni: Yes. 'Edmodo just like Facebook I think

Baetty: OK! Say, say about this what do you mean Jeni Edmodo is like Facebook and then what do you feel about… what, what does it to like Facebook

Jeni: I think that Edmodo is just like Facebook because we can make our status, our private message and then a…it can be some job with us, because sometimes when I made status the other comments and yeah… it can improve my writing when I make status

Baetty: Why don't you do the same in Facebook, why should be on Edmodo?

Jeni: Because in Edmodo we use English and our friends at... at... in our class (unrecognised words) taken comments with English too

Baetty: Ok, that's (unrecognised words) that more motivating, Herlina do you want say something? Laksmi, Reni, Marisa? Do you think the same like Jeni? So, Laksmi say the same with Jeni, Herlina also say that, (unrecognised words) do you think that different Idea, It's ok to be disagree! Reni?

Reni: I think same with Jeni:

Baetty: The same with Jeni

Laksmi: I just like that, when we put something in English in Edmodo, ehm... You will be improve your English I mean that a… the teacher will be a... give the comment or correct your writing or our post, our post and then from your, you can increase about your English in your writing

Baetty: So, you are motivated, Joniis more motivated now, do you see that some friends who you consider that they are not, less motivated as you are in classes, do you see that they also post comments and give feedback, reply to comment?

Unidentified chores of response: No, Miss

Baetty: No??? So, only those are motivated like you do that thing? Did you ask your friends less motivated than you? What do they feel when you give comment on their post? Are they happy or did they feel oh, why you are doing this to me? Do you hear something like that?

Unidentified chores of response: Not actually

Baetty: OK, Let's continue I hope it's still recording ehm… will we? Do you still remember? Who is the last time? Is it me talking? OK, when you give comment to your friend's post, do you see whether their happy or not happy about it?

Laksmi: They just silent, Miss.

Baetty: They just silent? They didn't say anything, OK, they didn't feel aghhh… No?
Laksmi: No

Task

Baetty: That's just fine. OK, that's about use Edmodo is helpful because it's feel like Facebook you are happy that of friends give comments, you can post something in English and then you get feedback from your lecture or from your friends, OK, thank you. And the next thing that I wanted to know is related to the task. So, in your writing classes you do task, your lectures explain about what is narrative, and then they ask you to write the narrative, and then after you write there is feedback section and how to improve your writing by the end of the class the lecture give general comments about your writing isn't it? as well as in technical writing one with the letter writing that you are doing that is the same sequence, there is the same sequence in writing one and writing two. They give you information about what that is, and then they ask you to start to writing, and three was comment section, and then you improve your writing again, summary what you have done, OK, so this is what we collect of task, task best learning, do you think that by doing this task it improve your English?

Some unidentified voice from the students: Yes! Off course

Baetty: Off course, do you think that less motivated because this kind of stages of your learning?

Laksmi: A.. Sometimes

Baetty: Sometimes tell me more Laksmi? In where way make you demotivated?

Laksmi: Just sometimes because a… the task will be what we call it... we have to correct our first task and we submit again, we submit again I think that where is wrong... I don't know just make me got boring

Baetty: So, it makes you boring?

Laksmi: Sometimes

Baetty: Sometimes, not always boring? In which stage?

Laksmi: A….. a……..

Baetty: In the first correction still OK?

Laksmi: A… yeah OK

Baetty: Which one the second or the third you become boring?

Laksmi: The second

Baetty: OK. It's fine! Go on! and will say something about that, thank you for that

Laksmi. Jeni?

Baetty: Like Joni! Joni how about you?

Joni: I don't know what to say maybe…

Baetty: Joni, you try to like English what happened, what do you feel when this happened? When you have to do correction and do re correction, write it again?

Joni: Yeah, a… when writing class ehm… when writing class a… we have many more task about writing

Baetty: Bahasa??

Joni: A… susah memulainya (It's hard to start it)

Baetty: Susah memulainya? (It's hard to start it) Tu dah mulai tadi kan? (You have started talking in English just now) You don't need to feel this wrong, this wrong, just say it! Honest, I am not going to give you punishment for that, No, don't worry (Laugh)

Baetty: Later here your feeling?

Joni: My feeling

Baetty: Ah...

Joni: Sometimes I get boring, I become boring, actually I don't like English, but I try to know about English, so, when, when I study writing class, yeah, I try and try a… when I write ehm… maybe I can find a... the… the another vocab so.. I... so because... so, I can improve my English language so… I …
Baetty: But it doesn't make you less motivated?
Joni: No
Baetty: OK, that's the point, thank you, Herlina?
Herlina: In writing sometimes it boring because we don't know what to write
Baetty: So, isn't about the task but about how to get Idea to write?
Herlina: Yes, about how to get Idea sometimes we get an idea and then our .. you must put it in your task and say the anything that we made us confuse about that and it so boring and so make us yeah, more confuse than before and we don't know how to write more, so that the reason why I less motivated... in writing class
Baetty: So, you feel demotivated in writing class
Herlina: Yes
Baetty: The sometimes it more took many time or more took your time? Every time?
Herlina: Sometimes
Baetty: A view time
Herlina: Actually I like writing class but no the idea
Baetty: OK! When you know what to write
Herlina: It will be happy
Baetty: This technology help you that to look for the idea, there is no technology in your writing classes is harder to get the idea to write?
Herlina: Then we use technology sometimes it makes us confuse Miss,
Baetty: The technology, like what?
Jeni: Many sources
Herlina: A… like many sources e… sometimes we want to use a... one of the technology, one of the sources, and we saw the other sources it make us confuse to write, what we want to choose, we confuse about that
Baetty: OK I got you, thank you Herlina, Marisa?
Marisa: In writing the class, I feel so confuse I don't know what I write, I don't know what, a… maybe I don't know the lectures say to me, a... I know because a… my skill isn't in English a… a... I think today a… I must to improve in English it special in writing
Baetty: So, you want to improve your writing skill in English, but this kind of writing task does it also make you feel less motivated?
Unidentified Respondent: No
Baetty: No?,OK! Reni?
Reni: At the first when the lectures give me task about the writing I am so semangat (enthusiastic)
Baetty: You are also enthusiastic
Reni: So, I do it dengan semangat (energetically) input, and then when, when I think my task is going to be right and I submit it to lecture and she say that my task is…is wrong and it's not small mistake, it is big mistake. I am so sad with that and I try to correct that, so I try to correct that and, and I correct that and I, I try to understand what is she said and correct that again, and I submit it again to her, and she said it wrong again (unrecognised words) so I feel so tired
Baetty: OK
Reni: I just try to motivate myself, and tell to myself that it's not hard not going too hard, I should be, I should be… Saya harus bisa (I have to be able to do)
Baetty: OK, I should be able to do it
Reni: I should be able to do it, and I try again but sometimes I am so tired with that

Laksmi: Actually the writing class got boring a... depart the situation that, when the, when the lecture, the one of the lecture said that yes your task is good a… you have increase more better an then when the lecture say maybe you can submit a… another lecture because I am too busy with your task and then the lecture say that, it got wrong and then yeah I think like what wrong because a... the lectures a… before said that a… my task got a… got better but a... the other lecture said that my task too bad that make a… I don't want to study

Baetty: OK

Reni: Sometimes the lecture going to rude and encourage my task

Laksmi: Yeah

Baetty: Like what the rude one?

Reni: I don't know is this, make me down

Baetty: Like what sentences when they said that?

Reni: Like what when I try to be a word in Kamus a... in dictionary and then she said you don't know it same like

Baetty: OK, when the lecture said really you don't know this word?

Reni: Yes

Baetty: OK, so that's makes you discourage Laksmi like that?

Reni: Like so stupid

Laksmi: Yeah, like so stupid one, a…so confuse, so in writing class a… maybe in ehm… because in kelas selanjutnya, so, I want to put my task in a… the lecture one that said my task got better, I don't want my task, give it may task to lecture

Baetty: Another lecture

Laksmi: That said my task wrong, wrong, wrong I want to collect my task to lecture that give me more motivation, give me the a... the, the correction, the good way in a... say, because a… yeah a…ehm it make me feel like oh yeah I want to correct one a… just like that and I just like lecture a… that said that you, you task are wrong and just wrong

Baetty: OK, I got it, that thing that I take, your motivation is 'not about use of technology, op sorry, demotivated, less motivated isn't about technology the way the lecture give you comment in your writing, it's OK about the so many correction on your paper, on your submitted writing but the way the lecture give you

Unidentified voices: Yeah

Laksmi: And another reason is ehm… the score, the score a... so sensitive in score, because a... When the, when the see, when the view of my just like when Reni or Ayu and Herlina give it a… their task to the one of the lecture that the good, he get e... they got good score and when I give it my task in to the lecture that say my task is the bed I got difference score, so I want to in continue, in the next writing class I want to get my task in the lecture that say good because to be, I want to get the best score

Baetty: Ok, thank you, Miss Jeni doesn't say anything?

Jeni: Just like my friends

Baetty: To day hasn't any things, now you turn, do you thing this kind of task in writing make you demotivated, isn't the task or the lecture?

Baetty: I think the lecture

Baetty: So, isn't the task, is OK with the task but the way the lecture

Jeni: This task maybe if we write narrative task, and then I collect to the lecture so, she always say oi... why, how about your grammar? You always pick the wrong, put the wrong grammar, I am sometimes confuse o…when I have to write e... simple present or past in the narrative the yeah… like anther say the lectures always "Uff…Push" pushing us to make better but she a... he do the rude way to treat us

Baetty: OK, OK, I got you, now have some picture to show you, Jonihas said, No, Your turn before that tell me Johan, what do you feel about the task
Joni: Ehm.. The task a… for the task I have no problem, so yeah... I have problem about the lecture
Baetty: OK, it's the same what your friends said?
Joni: Yeah
Baetty: OK, so I understood. Now, let's continue with the next ehm…OK let's see this one, what do you think about this? Is it of part the technology that you use in writing classes, opening in another one, OK this one, is it part the technology you use in your writing class?
Some unidentified voice from the students: Yeahh
Baetty: OK
Jeni: Google Translate
Baetty : Google translate, can you tell me about this? Do you do these kinds of thing?
Some unidentified voice from the students: Yes
Baetty: Look at it close
Herlina: Oh no
Baetty: Why is it no, Herlina?
Herlina: We don't put it in one paragraph
Baetty: You, don't put your word in one paragraph by that
Herlina: Because it make us confuse, because yeah with the grammar
Baetty: With the grammar?
Herlina: Yes, we just put maybe
Jeni: One sentence
Herlina: One sentence or two words
Baetty: You usually put the most two sentence or one sentence?
Herlina: The most is a… one sentence
Baetty: One sentence
Herlina: Not in Paragraph
Baetty: Not in paragraph, in other?
Reni: Same like it
Baetty: Same like this one, a paragraph in Google Translate?
Some unidentified voice from the students: No
Baetty: Maybe that Joni do it? Did you?
Some unidentified voice from the students : No
Laksmi: I ever do it
Baetty: You have don't, what happened when you do that?
Herlina: O My God! I got confuse
Baetty: And you relate it was wrong
Herlina: Yes, that was wrong
Baetty: The same everybody?
Some unidentified voice from the students: Laugh
Baetty: Do you do this Jeni?
Jeni: Yes
Baetty: You did that, and what do you feel?
Jeni: A… Sometimes I just that for know what the idea of the, of the text a… and then if I a… I got the idea a… I look the original text again and write in good grammar
Baetty: So, you do this but, you do comparison and then you look it go back to original one and make it corrected?
Jeni: Yes
Baetty: But, how many times do you do this? Do you always? Is it often?
Jeni: No, Sometimes

Baetty: Sometimes, what about the other? Marisa?
Marisa: Sometimes Miss
Baetty: What is the software that you usually do, that you usually use for you?
Laksmi: Sederet. Com
Baetty: Sederet. Com
Herlina: The Thesauruses
Baetty: Thesauruses
Jeni: Smart Phone
Baetty: What is in the Smart Phone?
Jeni: Kamusku
Baetty: Kamusku, Reni?
Reni: I use Google Translate
Baetty: Google Translate, like this way?
Reni: No
Baetty: Like how do you use?
Reni: Just like Herlina, but one sentence or two sentences or what that I don't know what it mean so I search in Google Translate
Baetty: Which is more that you do words or sentences?
Reni: Sentences
Baetty: Sentences, OK, Jonisentences or word?
Joni: Sentences
Baetty: Sentences, OK, Laksmi?
Laksmi: Sentences
Baetty: Sentences, OK, oh…..sentences (Laugh)
Baetty: The other thing not one paragraph or you do open one paragraph?
Reni: No, the longest is one sentence
Baetty: The longest one, two sentences?
Herlina: No, I said one sentences
Baetty: One sentence
Herlina: Reni say two sentences
Baetty: OK, now I have this? Do you do this kind of thing in your class?
Some unidentified voice from the students :Yes
Baetty: Forget about who he is, do you do this think?
Jeni: Yes
Baetty: Yes when do you do this think?
Laksmi: Browsing
Baetty: Yeah, browsing something unrelated to topic of your writing
Jeni: Sometimes when the lecture a… give us a… learn us about, but, sometimes, she make us boring and confuse why, why don't we to move interesting website
Baetty: That is interesting and then can you still catch up the material that she said when you are doing this thing?
Jeni: Yeah
Baetty: Yeah?
Herlina: I ask my friend, my friend beside me, what the lecture said before.
Baetty: OK, Herlina complete it
Herlina: I just get boring because a… the lecture say that a… something that make us confuse, so, we move to this one and, and we don't here the lecture and she give us the task what the task before? What did she o… the lecture say about the task and we ask to our task beside us
Laksmi: Just like yah… actually, when you got, the way the lecture a… teach you a yeah… actually (unrecognised words) searching something or a… reading Webtoon

Baetty: Most of you love Webtoon in English?
Some unidentified voice from the students: Yeah
Baetty: Are you sure in English?
Baetty: Yeah
Baetty: OK
Laksmi: A… And just like that I… I… searching something and then make my mind refreshing and then, just like that, there is no reason, a… to… to don't collect your task, there is no reason, I... I search something but I done my task
Baetty: Do you see that your friends did these but didn't do well with task?
Laksmi: Yes
Baetty: Is it many of them?
Laksmi: No
Baetty: No, OK. Others want to say something? Jeni, Herlina?
Herlina: We also do that because our task has done, we have many longer time of our task
Baetty: So, You did this kind of thing, searching for something unrelated to your task, in order to refresh you and if you have more times after you complete your task?
Some unidentified voice from the students: Yes
Baetty: Reni?
Laksmi: To restart our mind
Baetty: To restart you mind
Jeni: Just like this class technical writing, we have two lecture, after the one lecture say you should to, o… mengerjakan to do this bla-bla-bla then, when other comes, the second lecture, she say the same too we… kita sudah what disini, disuruh bikin lagi Miss, akan udah sama yang satu, udah kita tinggalin aja, just like second lecture
Baetty: Because you has ready that?
Jeni: Yes
Baetty: Why don't you just say I have done this?
Joni: She always talking
Baetty: OK
Jeni: We have more time to browsing
Baetty: OK, thank you, let's move to other one, I wanted to know how the step of you in completing your writing class what do you do first and after that, and the last thing what do you do to complete your writing task?
Reni: To complete the writing task I understand a… misalnya temannya apa gitu a (For example, the theme is about something ..) , and then I browsing in internet and try to find the referensi
Baetty: References
Reni: References of my task and then I try to mengembangkan (develop)
Baetty: You develop it
Reni: Yeah, the idea of the source that I found and then I take my task, and then, I correct it again and I ask to my friend, is it true my task? It done, and baru Miss, baru (then) I submit
Baetty: Thank you Reni, next? Is it exactly the same, Laksmi?
Laksmi: It exactly the same, just like a… in writing class the first step that you have to do when you, when you write the short story, you have to know that idea of your story that you have to write and then you have to mengembangkan (develop)
Baetty: You need to develop it
Laksmi: And then just like that, the first thing a… that you have to do, yeah you have get an idea

Baetty: When you doing in Edmodo you have to submit it in Edmodo, do you type directly to Edmodo? or you type it on Microsoft word, and you start with piece of paper after you put it piece of paper you type on the word and the sent to Edmodo?

Joni: The first in the piece of paper and in the Microsoft word and then we submit to Edmodo

Baetty: You submit to Edmodo, just like attachment?

Joni: Yes

Baetty: When do you do that posting in the Edmodo submitting the assignment and posting is different all right?

Some unidentified voice from the students: Submit

Baetty: When do you do post? Is it the same?

Some unidentified voice from the students: We have to compare

Baetty: So, you just follow the instruction?

Some unidentified voice from the students: Yes

Baetty: OK, Anybody want to say anything else about this, about the motivation, use the technology? That you think that you want it to know?

Joni: When we discuss like that Miss.

Baetty: Like what, like this, what do you mean? Again? Maybe online, maybe I have go back to the UK on Monday morning

Jeni: And you will give us

Baetty: I will give you souvenir of course, ok, this like this, before I only planned for two classes but now I have six classes, if is not enough for everybody I will sent it, I will buy again there, I will sent it by house you will get it later from you lecture, but for now, I will give to you one of you in this, maybe to Jeni are you responsible?

Jeni: Yes I am responsible

Baetty: Ok, so, maybe you will get it from Jeni, ehmm, one before the questioner that you have fill in for one the focus group that you will get it, but keep secrets to your friends because I only need six people in one group, I only need two group in a day, but I don't have enough they actually because only two days left, and your friends has register like (unrecognised words) so many (unrecognised words)

Thank you for your time, for your time for your participation.

APPENDIX 7: Transcript 2 (Interview with the lecturers)

21 November 2016 at 1 .46 pm
Participant: Hasanah (Pseudonym)

Baetty :OK we are recording now. It's Thursday 21 November 2016 at 01. 46 PM with Ibuk Hasanah and me, Baetty. We are going to talk about teaching experience, the way we teach the class and then also the use of technology for classes it's including your opinion and your practice whether you use technology or not is not a matter. I just want to hear about your opinion and your experience in teaching in vocational hire education. First of all, thank you very much for your time buk Hasanah, I would like to hear some from you and is let me know. Ok, first of all I would like to know. Didn't recorded. That is recording. So, let's start again. At Thursday 21 November 2016 at 01. 47 PM and I am here with Ibuk Hasanah from English department of Padang State Polytechnic we are going to talk about Buk Hasanah's experience in teaching in Polytechnic it's including her perception about student motivation, the way she teach and maybe the use of technology if she using technology and let's have a discussion. Thank you for the time and the chance Buk Hasanah. First of all, I would like to know about when did you started teaching, where was it and what kind of method you are using for your teaching.

Hasanah: Actually experience teaching I start teaching in 1995 I guess and I was on the second semester. oh no! I am not in second semester of my study in Andalas University but at that time my student was kindergarten, play group kindergarten and elementary school and start the second years that my boss give me the chance to teach adult in offices so this is in house training and I think the method it is like I copy cut actually from him. So, once when he did the teaching he ask me to come on join him and then after that he let me to do the teaching by myself and then after he was in time and then he provide comment, provide comment on what right, what go wrong and tips and trick in teaching young age student and also adult. So, I don't know what do you mean by strategy, what do you mean?

Baetty : Like your teaching approach whether you are using communicative based approach or you are using student centre, teacher centre, grammar based or things like that

Hasanah: For the young age I guess because at the time there was a handbook right?

Baetty: Hmm

Hasanah: So each of handbook each of the student has different handbook. So, in the class room there is a student in level one, there was a student level two, there was a student level three. So it's mean their ask was quite difficulty because start from the low level and we have to caught to higher level right at the same time right at the same class.

Baetty: It's a mix level in one class?

Hasanah: Yaa mixed level in one class. Consist maximum ten student I guess and then so the trick, the approach that I use at the time is only to fill, to fill the correct, to fill the sentences, and then to the exercises rather than lecturing.

Baetty: That is informal English classes?

Hasanah: Course

Baetty: Is it a courses?

Hasanah: Ya and then for adult I use communicative rather than because most of them in house training required conversation class. So if we not second I took several

breakthrough and not yet person to person, ooh interchange not yet the new but interchange. So breakthrough in interchange and then start teaching Padang State Polytechnics in 2006 oh no 2005 November or October, no September, sorry. September 2005 and I don't know, I am old passion personal so likely that I use this technology for student is because you know that they have smartphone and then so I am really interested into this flip method.

Baetty: Ok, yes..

Hasanah: So I ask them to do task. So final about a task in a group and they can use smartphone for finding as much as reference as possible, as new reference as possible, as much information as possible, and then I think almost of the end of the class room ten minutes before class over, fifteen minutes before class over one of the group come in front of the class room to present what have they found, what have they got about the task that been given and then it will be like question and answer session. Whether they still any discussion that they don't understand and then they will be next presentation for the next week so for each topic will be two meeting I guess.

Baetty: So would you tell me if I am not mistaken you said that you are using task based activities for your classes, can you described about the way you conducted the class from the first minute to the last minutes of the meeting?

Hasanah: So as I told before I am old personal, I am willing old standard, my standard since long time ago, so the first time that I brainstormed them so for sample like 'like and dislike', what is that? What is preference? After brainstorming idea they come with what and then they come with. I am taught and then will be like a more.. I put them, straighten them. I think, straighten them. 'OK,. that noted but that this it' what you say old, closer but that noted .OK? After we got this, excuse me! After we got this kind of understanding and then that the way, I give them task. Task based and then for example like.. OK, "talking about like and dislike!" So for example, like what they've understanding about "like and dislike", what can you do work, can you do is it? Is that about the task and also about many role play so they prepare, how and when and what kind of situation they can use this 'like and dislike' and what other terms that they can use to

Baetty: So can I interrupt you do you mean like for one meeting you bring a topic of function a language function for example 'like and dislike' for this meeting then you ask student to look for something related to 'like and dislike'

Hasanah: Not something related. What is it about actually?

Baetty: What is like and dislike?

Hasanah: What is like and dislike something not related what is like and dislike? What is preference actually? And after they got understand 'ohh, ok so that like and dislike, that is preference' and then I give them the task based

Baetty: So in this task what they are doing? What are they doing with their smartphone?

Hasanah: Finding the dialogue

Baetty: Ohh they look for dialogue

Hasanah: Yaa, but cannot copy cut but this is like reference

Baetty: OK

Hasanah: And also with their explanation about like and dislike so they should find with their smartphone what is actually, what are other people say about like and dislike, what are other people say about preference and they got the information and they make their own

Baetty: Ok, so they do research on like and dislike and then they gather information

Hasanah: Yes

Baetty: Is it individual activities or group activities?

Hasanah: Group activities

Baetty: In the class?
Hasanah: In the class
Baetty: Not outside of the class?
Hasanah: Not outside in the class because why do I make this is the class room activity because I still can control meaning that I am cycling around so every time they need help for example they don't know what to do or they don't know where to find so I can give them reference 'ok, so why don't to try this listening, why don't to try this listening, why don't to try this listening.
Baetty: So every group are working on the same topic?
Hasanah: Yes
Baetty: At the same time they are looking for example like and dislike for this meeting?
Hasanah: Ya
Baetty: And then after that how many minutes they are doing the researching?
Hasanah: Usually 20-30 minutes
Baetty: 20-30 minutes and after that they present?
Hasanah: And then design what will be they presentation about, what have go on how can they present it without only taking from one tool so from many sources
Baetty: And then they present it to the class, so every group can do presentation at that day if not enough time will be the next day?
Hasanah: Yes
Baetty: And then what did you do by the end of the class after everybody has presented?
Hasanah: After presentation is peer review, peer review and another group provided in tight for example like strain first I always suggest my student for strain first and their weakness, what is the strain, what is the strain of the group, what is their weakness, so they know next time they won't do the same too for peer review and at the end not all the group I think sometime because 2 time 45 minutes it's not enough
Baetty: Yes
Hasanah: Not enough so sometime I only chose like that why always say voluntary who want to come to the front, who is ready presentation three or four group and then we have this class discussion on what is like and dislike about? so we come up into one agreement of the class room 'ok, so this is it to make it' I think that for their understanding so really-really have a good structure, they really have a good foundation, so what is like and dislike, how can they implement,
Baetty: If we can compare like now you are asking your student to use their cell phone to gather the information, before this time when the application of smartphone is lowed in the class what did you ask your student to do?
Hasanah: Is it home
Baetty: Ok at home
Hasanah: So that why I am try enough flip class room
Baetty: Do you think that by allowing them to access their smartphone use technology inside the class, do you see the different let's say student motivation and their performance, does it influent?
Hasanah: That why I would prefer to have it in the class room so I can control, you know the control is still always in my hand because when you cycling around and then for example like you lecturer stand beside you, your chicken out.
Baetty: You might also do the same thing before without you use technology which is like maybe you ask student to be in a group to discuss and then present what is the result of the discussion. Do you find there is differences between only discussion in the group and discussion in the group with technology, do you see any different or they more motivated?

Hasanah: What I can see that this young people right now also highly motivated when they have a cell phone on their hand

Baetty: OK. Now, did

Hasanah: So instead I am talking and then they using phone for something else that my plan actually. Why I don't I make you soft it and yes I find it a bit motivated not too much but yes I found it motivated for them, they use their smartphone rather than use ago I ask them to find the material from home to bring it to the class room but most of the student just ask one student to find it and copy it from her or him so the same material for almost have of the class room and what is it form. So I think that trick for me to make them to be and also to be motivated also in the class room to listen to me, listen to the lesson not to the reason to the lesson, the lesson my explain is, by involving the smartphone in the class room

Baetty: Is it equal to the proficiency they are more motivated and do you think that became proficiency in their English?

Hasanah: Yes

Baetty: Ok

Hasanah: Because every time they find out new work they will ask and I said 'why you don't check your smartphone?' the smartphone has insole the dictionary so that make them easier, to make them occupied, that the trick actually that make them dreaming

Baetty: Ok, because we are talking about motivation now, do you consider your student are motivated student?

Hasanah: Right now?

Baetty: Hmm

Hasanah: Yes, but not all

Baetty: In general?

Hasanah: Majority yes around 80%

Baetty: 80% of each years I mean the first year student, second year, third year student?

Hasanah: There are always 20% rodent. Rotten apple there are so from all age a good there are 20% ex other majority yes.

Baetty : OK. Among that 20% majority motivated student the use of technology is more motivating them and more improving their English?

Hasanah: Yes

Baetty: OK. Thank you very much, Buk Hasanah

Hasanah: OK

Baetty: Nice to talk to you

Hasanah: Allhamdulillah

APPENDIX 8: Module assessment records

KEMENTERIAN RISET, TEKNOLOGI DAN PENDIDIKAN TINGGI

POLITEKNIK NEGERI PADANG

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DAFTAR NILAI
JURUSAN BAHASA INGGRIS
PROGRAM STUDI BAHASA INGGRIS

MATAKULIAH : WRITING I **KELAS : I.A**
DOSEN : DESI YULASTRI, M.EIL / Dra. KOTRINI, M.Pd **T.A. : 2016/2017 - GANJIL**

No	Nama Mahasiswa	No. BP	Nilai Tugas	Nilai UTS	Nilai UAS	Nilai Akhir	Nilai Mutu
1	Nanda Muliana	1601121001	78	76	70	74	B
2	Reni Novriyanti	1601121003	78	76	73	75	B+
3	Safriadi	1601121005	78	83	80	80	A-
4	Jeni Melfita	1601121009	70	85	80	78	B+
5	Mutiara Ramadhani	1601121011	75	82	78	78	B+
6	Kristin Claudia Angela Telaumbanua	1601121013	75	78	75	75	B+
7	Dahrul Ikhsan	1601121015	75	80	75	76	B+
8	Sylvia Devita	1601121017	70	70	75	72	B
9	Cessy Hayatul Fitri	1601121019	70	80	70	73	B
10	Restiya Marta	1601121023	75	73	75	74	B
11	Diego Armando	1601121025	68	80	70	72	B
12	Delisa Fitra Amran	1601121027	80	85	85	83	A-
13	Suci Rahma Dani	1601121029	78	78	75	76	B+
14	Sofani Bunga	1601121031	70	75	68	70	B
15	Faridatul Hasanah	1601121033	70	68	70	69	B-
16	Tuti Tri Yana	1601121035	70	75	70	71	B
17	Maliar Mutmainah	1601121037	70	68	66	67	B-
18	Apri Yona	1601122001	77	70	75	74	B
19	Anggi Satria Kumiawan	1601122005	70	70	75	72	B
20	Nadya Ghina Luqyana	1601122011	80	80	70	76	B+
21	Nabila Putri Marshall	1601122013	78	80	75	77	B+
22	Febriandi Chandra	1601122016	0	0	0	0	E
23	Aisha Amalia Putri	1601122019	75	85	73	77	B+
24	Ofra Regina Suharsil	1601122021	75	85	80	80	A-
25	Reni Puspita	1601122023	75	73	76	74	B
26	Syuhada Farisja Fursan	1601122025	0	0	0	0	E

Padang, 22 Februari 2017

Ketua Jurusan,

Hendro Saptopramono, SS, M.Ed in TESOL
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APPENDIX 9: Variables with outliers

- Variable 1 with two extreme values in the lower end of the distribution equal to or less than or 3
- Variable 2 with fifteen extreme values in the upper end of the distribution equal to or less than 4
- Variable 4 had both lower and upper-end extreme values with 24 in the lower end of the distribution equal to or less than 4, and 25 in the upper end equal to or less than 6
- Variable 5 with five extreme values in the lower end of the distribution that are less than 3
- Variable 6 with three extreme values in the lower end of the distribution equal to or less than 3
- Variable 7 with eleven extreme values in the lower end of the distribution that are less than 1
- Variable 8 with thirteen extreme values in the lower end of the distribution equal to or less than 2.
- Variable 11 with twelve extreme values in the upper end of the distribution equal to or less than 5.

APPENDIX 10: The summary of demographic data for online questionnaire

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Class	125	1	4	2.69	.093	1.035	-.317	.217	-1.033	.430
Age	124	17	24	19.25	.096	1.064	.635	.217	2.371	.431
Sex	125	1	2	1.74	.040	.443	-1.084	.217	-.839	.430
Daily Language Usage	119	1	8	2.08	.088	.958	3.963	.222	19.852	.440
The age starting English Learning	124	2	17	8.68	.228	2.542	.266	.217	.894	.431
Valid N (listwise)	117									

Demography: The Age of the Student Participants

Age	Frequency	Percent
17	4	3.2
18	25	20.0
19	45	36.0
20	40	32.0
21	8	6.4
22	1	.8
24	1	.8
9999	1	.8
Total	125	100.0

APPENDIX 11: The findings from the questionnaire (Part 1)

	Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		The Findings
	Part 1: Motivation to learn English in vocational institution					
1	Motivation Level	124	5.35	0.798	6	Very high
2	Reason for choosing the English Department	124	1.81	1.292	5	To be able to communicate in English
3	Rank of entry option	124	1.67	0.671	3	First and Second choices
	Part 2: Motivation and writing task performance					
4	Perception on motivation effect on writing task	124	4.97	0.806	6	Agree (Motivation affect willingness to do the writing tasks)
5	Perception on the effect of task on motivation	125	5.06	0.878	6	Agree (The writing tasks affect motivation to learn English)
	Part 3: Reasons for getting motivated and demotivated					
6	Perception on the effect of technology on motivation	125	5.30	0.783	6	Strongly agree (The use of technology in learning affects motivation to learn English)
7	Reason for being motivated	125	3.21	1.102	5	The use of technology contributes to a more interesting learning process (be more motivated)
8	Reason for being demotivated	124	4.21	1.142	5	Unknown factors caused demotivation
9	Perception on changes in writing skills	123	2.59	1.541	5	Self-encouragement helps in acquiring improved writing skills

The findings from the questionnaire (Part 2)

	Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		The Findings
	Part 4: Technology-mediated task-based learning					
10	Copy paste activities	125	4.13	1.626	7	Students were undecided and rather agreeing that they used to copy-pasting in performing writing tasks
11	Ways to complete writing tasks	125	2.64	1.110	5	Starting to write and editing by reading and revising the writing are the way students do their writing tasks
12	Vocabularies searching tools	123	2.69	1.955	7	Online application in smartphones
	Part 5: Technology utilisation and its effect					
13	Perception on the effect of non-technology utilisation on motivation to complete the task	124	3.01	1.200	5	Disagree (the use of non-technology does not cause interest for completing writing tasks)
14	Perception on the use of non-technology in completing tasks	125	4.42	1.623	7	Undecided for the use of pens, pencils, paper, and printed dictionaries
	Classes by Year	125	3.28	1.654	6	

APPENDIX 12: Test of normality for questionnaire results

Larson-Hall (2015) listed four ways to check for normal distributions: 1) histogram, 2) skewness and kurtosis, 3) stem and leaf plots, and 4) quantile-quantile plots (Q-Q Plots). Normality was also tested on SPSS 23, using One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test (KS Test) through the command ANALYSE > DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS > EXPLORE.

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Online Questionnaire						
1. Motivation Level	.527	125	.000	.064	125	.000
2. Reason for choosing the English Department	.526	125	.000	.064	125	.000
3. Rank of entry option	.527	125	.000	.064	125	.000
4. Perception in motivation effect on writing task	.527	125	.000	.064	125	.000
5. Perception in the effect of task on motivation	.279	125	.000	.796	125	.000
6. Perception in the effect of technology on motivation	.264	125	.000	.761	125	.000
7. Reason for being motivated	.249	125	.000	.873	125	.000
8. Reason for being demotivated	.527	125	.000	.064	125	.000
9. Perception in changes in writing skills	.534	125	.000	.105	125	.000
10. Copy paste activities	.157	125	.000	.943	125	.000
11. Ways to complete writing tasks	.245	125	.000	.856	125	.000
12. Vocabularies searching tools	.533	125	.000	.105	125	.000
13. Perception in the effect of non-technology utilisation on motivation to complete the task	.527	125	.000	.064	125	.000
14. Perception in the use of non-technology in completing tasks	.123	125	.000	.944	125	.000

Biodata						
Class	.234	125	.000	.862	125	.000
Age	.526	125	.000	.064	125	.000
Sex	.461	125	.000	.550	125	.000
Learning Outcomes (Test Scores)						
TOEIC 1	.429	125	.000	.571	125	.000
TOEIC 2	.417	125	.000	.612	125	.000
TOEIC Diff	.417	125	.000	.608	125	.000
Assignment Score	.524	125	.000	.066	125	.000
Mid-Test Score	.146	125	.000	.953	125	.000
Semester-Test Score	.101	125	.003	.948	125	.000
Final Score	.076	125	.077	.956	125	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

APPENDIX 13: Writing modules scores

Assignment Scores

		Classes by Year						
		1A	1B	2A	2B	3A	3B	Total
Assignment Score	60	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	65	0	2	1	0	0	0	3
	68	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	70	8	2	2	0	0	8	20
	75	6	0	1	7	7	3	24
	76	0	1	0	2	0	0	3
	77	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	78	4	4	0	4	0	0	12
	80	2	17	8	13	6	3	49
	85	0	0	7	0	0	3	10
	9999	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total		22	26	20	26	14	17	125

Mid-Term Test Score

		Classes by Year						
		1A	1B	2A	2B	3A	3B	Total
Mid-Test Score	60	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	65	0	2	0	1	0	0	3
	68	2	1	0	0	0	0	3
	70	3	4	12	2	0	8	29
	73	2	3	0	0	0	0	5
	75	2	5	4	2	2	3	18
	76	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
	77	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	78	1	2	0	0	0	0	3
	80	4	3	3	1	7	3	21
	82	1	1	0	0	0	0	2
	83	1	1	0	1	0	0	3
	85	4	3	1	5	4	3	20
	87	0	0	0	3	0	0	3
	88	0	0	0	5	0	0	5
	89	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
	90	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	95	0	0	0	3	0	0	3
Total		22	26	20	26	14	17	125

Semester-Test Score

		Classes by Year						
		1A	1B	2A	2B	3A	3B	Total
Semester-Test Score	45	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	60	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
	65	0	1	0	1	0	0	2
	66	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	68	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	70	6	1	5	2	0	7	21
	72	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	73	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
	74	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	75	6	2	0	6	1	3	18
	76	1	2	0	0	0	0	3
	77	0	2	0	1	0	0	3
	78	1	5	0	1	0	0	7
	80	3	5	5	4	3	3	23
	81	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	82	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
	83	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
	85	1	4	7	5	4	2	23
	86	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	90	0	0	2	3	3	0	8
	95	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
Total		22	26	20	26	14	17	125

Final Scores

		Classes by Year						
		1A	1B	2A	2B	3A	3B	Total
Final Score	52	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	65	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	67	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	69	1	0	0	1	0	0	2
	70	1	2	2	1	0	7	13
	71	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	72	3	0	0	0	0	0	3
	73	1	0	0	0	0	1	2
	74	4	3	1	2	0	0	10
	75	1	2	0	0	1	2	6
	76	3	1	2	2	0	1	9
	77	1	6	5	1	0	0	13
	78	2	1	0	0	0	0	3
	79	0	3	0	2	3	0	8
	80	2	5	1	5	1	3	17
	81	0	0	4	1	1	1	7
	82	0	2	1	0	1	0	4
	83	1	0	0	2	0	0	3
	84	0	1	1	3	0	0	5
	85	0	0	2	1	2	2	7
	86	0	0	0	2	1	0	3
	87	0	0	0	3	1	0	4
	89	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
Total		22	26	20	26	14	17	125

APPENDIX 14: Kruskal-Wallis test results for class groups

Test statistics[a,b]

	Reason for choosing the English Department	Perception on motivation effect on writing task	Perception on the effect of task on motivation	Perception on the effect of technology on motivation	Reason for being motivated	Reason for being demotivated	Perception on changes in writing skills	Copy paste activities	Ways to complete writing tasks	Vocabularies searching tools	Perception on the effect of non-technology utilisation on motivation to complete the task	Perception on the use of non-technology in completing tasks
Chi-Square	4.158	16.482	18.770	16.058	1.976	7.143	8.115	13.571	3.664	5.863	11.310	3.800
df	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	0.385	0.002	0.001	0.003	0.740	0.129	0.087	0.009	0.453	0.210	0.023	0.434

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Motivation Level

APPENDIX 15: Descriptive statistics of the documents (Writing Modules Scores)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Assignment Score	124	60	85	76.89	.441	4.916	-.725	.217	.444	.431
Mid-Test Score	125	60	95	77.71	.645	7.206	.176	.217	-.654	.430
Semester-Test Score	125	45	95	77.98	.674	7.538	-.642	.217	2.081	.430
Final Score	125	52	89	77.67	.506	5.662	-.716	.217	2.268	.430
Valid N (listwise)	44									

APPENDIX 16: Test of normality for the Final Score per classes

Class		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Final Score	1A	.106	22	.200*	.988	22	.993
	1B	.143	26	.186	.958	26	.347
	2A	.165	20	.159	.928	20	.143
	2B	.128	25	.200*	.942	25	.167
	3A	.290	14	.002	.729	14	.001
	3B	.243	17	.009	.841	17	.008

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

- As shown in Table 16.1, the *p*-values for 1A (.993), 1B (.347), 2A (.143), 2B (.167) were all more than .05. They were significant, which implied that the distribution was not normal. However, the *p*-values for 3A (.001) and 3B (.008) were both less than .05; and they were, therefore, normally distributed.

Further tests were conducted by examining their histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots. The histogram showed that the Final Score was approximately normally distributed.

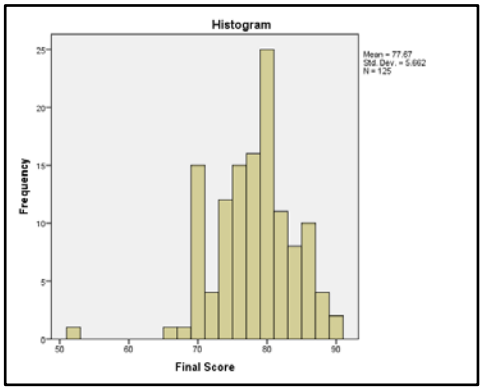
- 

Figure 16.1 The histogram for the Final Scores of all classes

- Figure 16.1 shows the visual overview of the final scores from the classes. The curve from the Final Scores results was not symmetrical.

APPENDIX 17: Correlation cross tabulation of Class and Motivation for Year 1, 2, and 3

Classes by Year		Motivation Level						
		Low	Somewhat Low	Somewhat High	High	Very High	Missing Response	Total
Year 1	1A			2	8	12		22
	1B			2	9	15		26
Year 2	2A			2	5	13		20
	2B		1	6	9	10		26
Year 3	3A			3	6	5		14
	3B	1		1	4	10	1	17
Total	Year 1			4	17	27		48
	Year 2		1	8	14	23		46
	Year 3	1		4	10	15	1	31
	Total	1	1	16	41	65	1	125

APPENDIX 18: Correlation (Motivation Level and Task -as-Outcome)

		Final Score	Motivation Level	Class
Final Score	Pearson Correlation	1	0.069	.[a]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.447	
	N	124	123	0
Motivation Level	Pearson Correlation	0.069	1	.[a]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.447		
	N	123	123	0
Class	Pearson Correlation	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	0	0	0

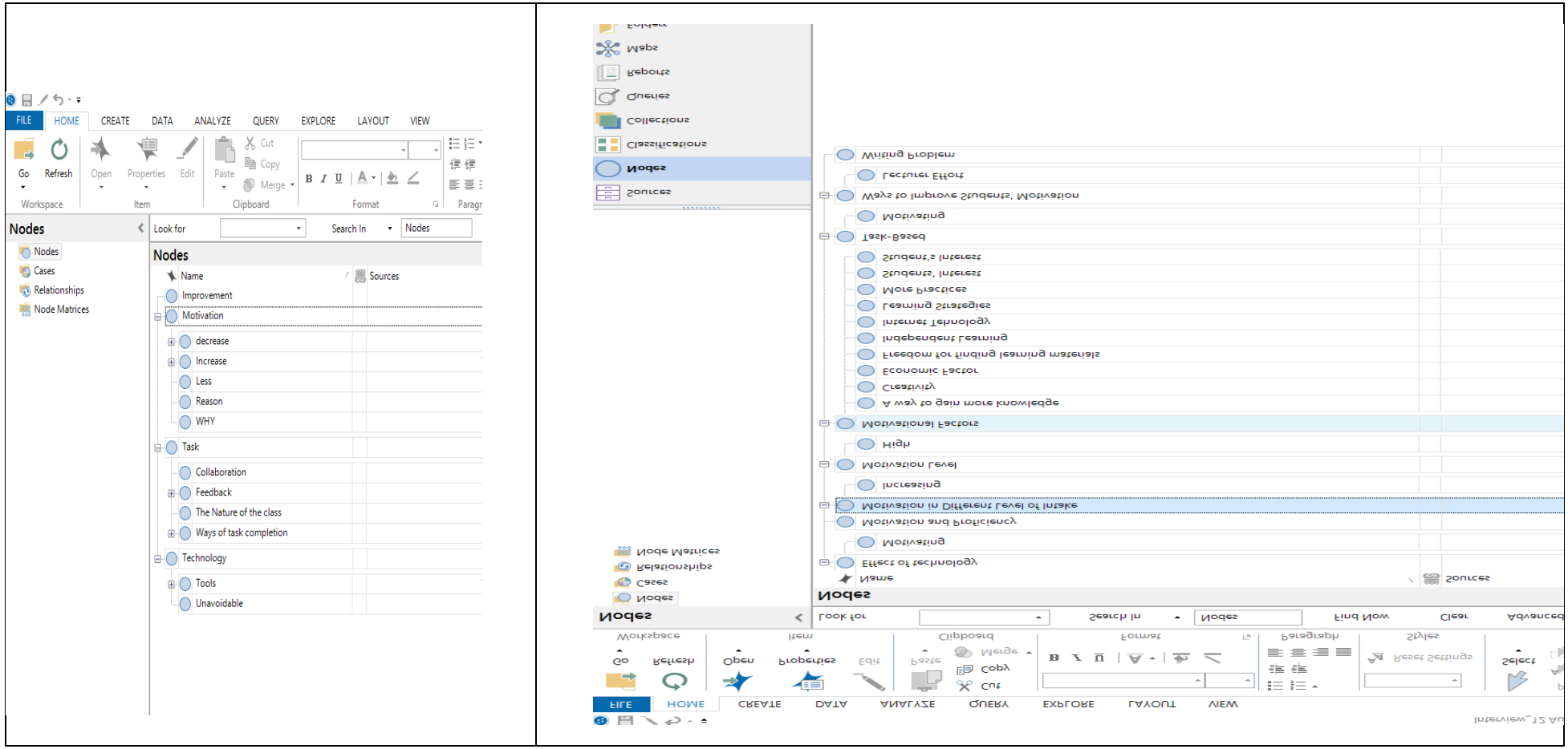
		Final Score	Motivation Level
Final Score	Pearson Correlation	1	0.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.447
	N	124	123
Motivation Level	Pearson Correlation	0.069	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.447	
	N	123	123

			Final Score	Motivation Level
Kendall's tau_b	Final Score	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	0.064
		Sig. (2-tailed)		0.383
		N	124	123
	Motivation Level	Correlation Coefficient	0.064	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.383	
		N	123	123
Spearman's rho	Final Score	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	0.076
		Sig. (2-tailed)		0.404
		N	124	123
	Motivation Level	Correlation Coefficient	0.076	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.404	
		N	123	123

APPENDIX 19: Correlation (Motivation Level and Task-in Process scores)

			Motivation Level	Assignment Score	Mid-Test Score	Semester-Test Score
Spearman's rho	Motivation Level	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.108	.026	.069
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.236	.771	.449
		N	124	123	124	124
	Assignment Score	Correlation Coefficient	.108	1.000	.334**	.544**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.236		.000	.000
		N	123	124	124	124
	Mid-Test Score	Correlation Coefficient	.026	.334**	1.000	.464**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.771	.000		.000
		N	124	124	125	125
	Semester-Test Score	Correlation Coefficient	.069	.544**	.464**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.449	.000	.000	
		N	124	124	125	125

APPENDIX 20: Themes from the interview



APPENDIX 21: Sample of the writing task (Narrative paragraph)

Nabila Putri M.

LOST IN THE MALL
I had an unforgettable experience when I went to Bogor last holiday. I went to Bogor with mom, and my brother. When we arrived in Bogor we went to mall. In the mall, I saw many view there is a bag store, shoes store and others. Then, when I walked in mall, I saw a clown in the stage of product promotion. I was shocked after seeing the clown, I ran, ran and ran. oh.... I was so afraid, and I used the escalator to go to second floor. But I'm forgot the escalator is when down not to up. Oh... I was embarrass, the clown keep stayed in the first floor, and I just cry in the mall alone. My mom and my brother keep fighting to find me in the mall. Finally, we met in the fast food restaurant, and I told about the story that I had. so, there was a unforgettable experience in my holiday I was so afraid and embarrass to told this story to others.

Delisa A.
Met Tere Liye
One year ago I went to Ciputat, South Tangerang to join for a course. It is Ronin Nurul Fikri 171 Ciputat. When I was there I had a close friend, her name was Nabila Intan Medina. In March, 6 2015 I went to Senayan, Jakarta Central to Islamic Book Fair event with Nabila. Actually, this is a first time to me to go to Jakarta Central only with my friend, because usually I went to everywhere with my sister. And you do you know? Nabila same with me, this was the first time to her to go to Jakarta Central without her family. When I was arrived to Senayan, Bung Karno Stadion. We don't know where the event, because you should know Bung Karno Stadion so weidth. Then, I walked with Nabila to search the event. Unware we had to surround the Bung Karno Stadion. Then, we were laughing together, cause we still not found the event. After than we were searched map google to found the event. Finally, when we found the event. I felt so happy. And then I bough some books and got Tere Liye sign on my books. And then Tere Liye ask my name, he shocked and he asked me to show my Identity Card. And he said "you are the second person with Delisa's name". When I chit-chat and Tere Liye signed my books, Nabila take some photos to me. After that, I went to home. This's a unfogettable experience in my life.

Narrative writing task and the feedback

Maliar M.
my first time in the campus
my first time in campus l,m late come and l,m very scored because the all have row to do apel pagi to new student, there are many satgas in gate.l,m happy because l get many new friends in campus. after apel finished l and my friend we came in class to study. l,m very happy because my friend in campus very well, not arrogant different with my fried in high school just think her self in campus smart and stupid student.

The feedback

Reni P.
my first time in the campus
My first time in campus l,m late come and l,m very scored because the all have row to do morning parade I to new student,there are many satgas in gate.l"m happy because l get many new friends in campus.after finished l and my friend we came in class to study. l,m very happy because my friend in campus very well, not arrogant different with my fried in high school just think her self in campus smart and stupid student.
Less...

Reni P.
you should check capital letter and punctuation next time. oke 😀

Reni N.
'come late' not 'late come'

Nadya Ghina L.
it's "I came late" not "i,m late come"

Sample and Feedbacks

Tuti T.
Finding Student Card
One day I went to GAMA by motorcycle when I finished try out in week. My teacher offered me to show student card. I took my student card in wallet. After that, I walked to parking area and checked my student card what I putted student card in wallet or not. In addition, my student card lost. A long time ago, I forgot my bag has pocket. I found student card in there. I was so excited that I looked it. That was my worst experience.

The feedback

CESSY H.
😀

Sample and Feedbacks

Faridatul H.
My unforgettable experience: RAINSTORM
I had unforgettable experience in my life when I was children. A long time ago, me and my friends went to hill in the near my village to seek wood. We ascended hill until we tired but we not find wood. And than, after we arrived in top of hill, Rain storm came. We take shelter in the hut. We waited rain abate. After we waited long time the rain more heavy. Than we force to came back home. We ran shun of rain. After than, we arrived in the village and rain stop. Its so bad moment and I am so wet.

Tuti T.
found not find
taked not take

Faridatul H.
Thanks Yana

Sample and feedback
Ofra Regina S.
My unforgotable experience
"Japanese Debate Competition"
I had unforgetable experience in my first competition Debate of Japanese lnguange, when I waited the group from Gorontalo. Two years ago, I and the groups of debate from West Sumatera arrived at Soeta Air port. Then we waited two groups from Gorontalo because we went together to Malang. Before we departed to Malang, I and my friend asked to the leader of contingent West Sumatera that the groups from Gorontalo were came. We felt happy, because we could departed early. But, on the route, I was aware the bus brought wrong groups. Finally, we went to Malang with the groups from the other province. That was my interesting and unforgettable from my first debate competition because I asked wrong information and went to Malang with wrong contingent groups.

Reni P.
Good

Reni P.
"Japanese Debate Competition"
I had unforgettable experience in my first competition Debate of Japanese language, when I waited the group from Gorontalo. Two years ago, I and the groups of debate from West Sumatera arrived at Soeta Air port. Then we waited two groups from Gorontalo because we went together to Malang. Before we departed to Malang, I and my friend asked to the leader of contingent West Sumatera that the groups from Gorontalo were came. We felt happy, because we could departed early. But, on the route, I was aware the bus brought wrong groups. Finally, we went to Malang with the groups from the other province. That was my interesting and unforgettable from my first debate competition because I asked wrong information and went to Malang with wrong contingent groups.

CESSY H.
unforgettable not unforgotable😬 hehehe